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ABSTRACT

This handbook includes articles by several authors on topics of interest to reading consultants. Specifically, the 13 chapters deal with the areas of reading readiness, word recognition, phonics, vocabulary development, reading comprehension, content area reading, rate of reading, interests and motivation, remedial corrective reading, evaluation, adult basic reading, and inservice. The appendixes include biographical sketches of leaders in reading; brief descriptions of landmark research; a teacher evaluation checklist; a list of responsibilities for reading supervisors; and lists of resource materials for reading consultants including books, periodicals, films, audiotapes, videotapes, and publishers and professional associations. (TJ)

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A HANDBOOK
FOR
THE READING CONSULTANT

Supervision and Curriculum
in Reading

Northeast Louisiana University

1979

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FOREWORD

The responsibilities of the reading consultant are numerous and varied. Being knowledgeable, resourceful, and possessing rapport with teachers can make the task rewarding.

It is hoped that this handbook will be a valuable guide for the consultant and, thereby, the teachers and children.

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READING READINESS

Every year in September first grade teachers are faced with the task of teaching reading to anywhere from twenty to thirty or more children. Yet, by June, if not before, these teachers will have to face the fact that they have failed with some of their students. They will recommend for a few another year in first grade and for the others a promotion to the second grade. The teacher has mixed feelings about the detaining of a child in first grade because he cannot comprehend on the level of his classmates. Despite the teacher's and the child's efforts the child cannot learn to read.

The first grade is a child's journey into the world of academic achievement. There are many important factors associated with this journey. The child's successful trip will depend on the adequate time for his preparation. Adequate time preparation involves such factors as learning at the right time, taking the best route for his purpose, in order to arrive at his destination.

A child's readiness to start his journey becomes a very basic concern for his teacher. Unfortunately for the teacher there is no single answer to the time question. Research has shown that all children are not like each other. These differences include physical, mental, social, and emotional differences.

Thus, the purpose of this paper is to further probe into the question of child development and reading development as they relate to

one another in their side-by-side positions. However the emphasis will be on "readiness," especially on reading readiness.

When we think of readiness we think of a state of preparediness for a task at hand. The word state, suggests the whole individual, his or her maturity in terms of his chronological and mental age, and his physical development. We should not depend solely on one factor to determine a child's ability to read or his readiness to read.

When we think of the child's readiness to learn we think of his physical well being, interests, curiosity, memory and so on. Readiness is a psychological concept when it is viewed in relationship to children's mental maturity, their current level of ability to use their personal background of experience with language and with sensory-motor processes. Readiness is a linguistic based concept when viewed in relationship to the task involved in the reading process, in encoding and decoding of language symbols. (Clifford L. Bush and Mildred H. Hirebner, p. 38-39)

According to Herbert a child must be prepared for learning. Reading requires that a child's interest be aroused, that he has his mind set for readiness to learn, and that an adequate experimental background be provided before the materials are presented. (Smith and Dechant, p. 75) This process has been identified with the Law of Readiness. From Hilgard we find a portion of that law to say that "When an action tendency is aroused through preparatory adjustments, sets, attitudes, and the like fulfillment of the tendency in action is satisfying. Nonfulfillment is annoying." Readiness thus means a a preparation for action. (Hilgard, p. 18)

The Law of Readiness is also identified with the Thorndike Law. There are children who come to school "ready" to read, or in other words, they are psychologically ready. An extended program of readiness training, rather than actually beginning reading may off set the tendency their children may have brought to school.

If the child does not have a felt need to learn--in short if he is not ready--it is unlikely that he will learn very much. Preparing the pupil for learning is the first step in a good teaching procedure. It is for this reason that many skilled teachers spend so much time in presenting their assignments. They set the stage, arouse curiosity, and in other ways appeal to the needs of the child. Once the child feels a readiness to learn, the teacher may need to do more than offer occasional guidance and encouragement. (Henry P. Smith, p. 233)

On the other hand research has shown to us that a better predictor of a child's future success in school is self-concept, rather than personal intelligence. To enable a child to achieve success in school according to the child's self-concept, then, we need to look at what the educator can do to build self-esteem of the students. (Marani, p. 124) The teacher can do the following things to promote self-esteem. (1) A teacher can promote a child's self-esteem by being interested in him and concerned about him as an individual. (2) Teachers should set up standards that are clear and definite. (3) Regulations and expectations should also indicate goals toward which the individual student can try to reach.

Dr. Leon Eisenberg used the term "dyslexia" to explain a situation in which a child is unable to learn to read with proper facility despite normal intelligence, intac senses, proper instruction,

and normal motivation. (Critchley, pp. 133-137) To understand dyslexia, one must first (1) grasp the concept of the "language function" in order to become aware of critical symptoms. (2) The "spread" of this disability within the facets of the acquisition of language must also be kept in mind at all times. (3) It is essential to recognize that this disability is "degree conscious" for in some persons the degree of learning disability may be quite obvious, but in others (particularly very bright youngsters) it may be just crippling, though more obscure. Therefore it is necessary to have a clear cut view of these factors in order that one may be able to assess the child's learning handicap. (Marani, pp. 71-72)

In spite of the learning handicaps of some children, all children seem to go through some type of development that can be correlated to the type of development that they go through in preparing themselves to read. (Raven and Salzer, pp. 630-639)

The reading stages of the child fall into six recognizable stages (Bush and Hulbner, p. 21). These stages are as follows: (1) The prereading stage--birth to level one. (2) The beginning reading stage--level one. (3) The initial stage of independent reading--level two. (4) The transition stage--levels three and early fourth. (5) The intermediate or low maturity stage--level four to six. (6) The advance stage of reading--level seven and up.

It is important to understand that these developmental stages of reading or language development play an important and unique role in reading readiness. There is an outline of the language areas in which the child should have special preparation before beginning to read. (Artley, pp. 325-326)

These areas are as follows:

1. Developing awareness of oral words as language units.
2. Enriching oral vocabulary.
3. Strengthening meaning associations.
4. Formulating sentences.
5. Organizing ideas for language units.
6. Using narrative expression.
7. Develop awareness of sentence structure.

The individual differences in each child's reading readiness paves the way for research into the subject (Bagford pp. 325-325). Research results consistently indicate a significant relationship between reading readiness scores and measures of early success in reading. Blresmer found that correlation between reading readiness scores and measures of early reading success normally fell between .50 and .60. (Bagford, p. 324). Back in 1959 Bremer reported a correlation of 40 between Metropolitan Readiness Test scores obtained at the beginning of the first grade and Gray--Votaw--Rogers General Achievement Test scores obtained at the beginning of second grade. (Bremer, pp. 222-224)

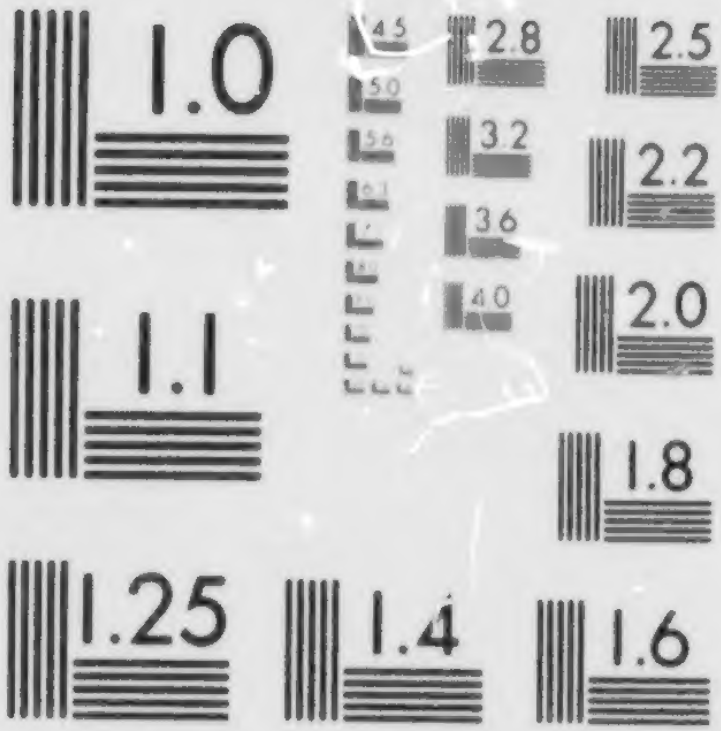
Therefore, the summary of these studies is as follows: (1) Reading readiness test scores are significantly related to later success in reading. Students who score well on reading readiness tests in kindergarten and first grade tend to score well on achievement tests in grades four, five, and six. (2) Reading readiness test scores are related to later success in reading as they are with early success. The data suggest that the relationships between readiness test scores and measures of early success in reading do not decrease significantly as children progress through school.

The last word has not been said concerning reading readiness. As the educator begins to learn more and more about individual differences, he will realize that it is important to adapt prereading

instruction. Research studies have recommended to all of us as educators that we need to fully understand and accept the children's cultural and language differences. The educator should "accept" children as they are, the language they bring to school, their modality strengths and weakness, their interests, and so on. The teacher's role is adaptation of the instructional program to the child rather than the adaptation of the child to some preconceived readiness program.

In order to provide the best possible initial instruction geared to individual needs, the teacher will need to keep up-to-date by reading current research, being selective and trying out the recommendations that are given by research.

Some other techniques teachers can use to determine if a child is ready to read are standardized reading readiness tests, informal check lists, teacher judgement and preprimary intelligence test of mental maturity. They have been used singly or collectively to judge the readiness of certain children for formal reading instruction and to make predictions as to the level of reading achievement, children will attain at the end of their first or second year in school.



MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

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WORD RECOGNITION

Word recognition skills and particularly phonics has been a debatable issue since the early 1900's. One could almost trace the history of the teaching of reading in this country by following the role that phonics and other word recognition skills have played in the teaching of reading. The problem has reached the point where it is almost a journalistic issue. Authorities, depending upon their biases, cite research to support their position which may vary from advocating a very strong synthetic phonics approach to advocating an analytic phonics approach. At this time there does not appear to be any authority who advocates the elimination of phonics instruction.

The research dealing with phonics could be summarized by stating that the findings of experimental studies suggest that programs emphasizing synthetic phonics tend to produce students subjected to a reading program that does not stress synthetic phonics. However, these findings should not be viewed as being detrimental to synthetic phonics, but rather they may suggest that teachers who stress phonics tend to ignore the teaching of comprehension skills, and as skillful in deriving meaning from what they read. Such a situation could possibly be overcome if teachers would place equal stress upon both phonics and comprehension.

Although phonics is an important word recognition skill, it is only one of five basic word analysis skills--the other being configuration, context clues, word analysis and dictionary usage.

in a good reading program, but significance should be kept in proper perspective. They are a means to an end, and the end is that the child will be able to analyze a word frequently enough so that the word eventually becomes a sight word (Hays, pp. 5-31).

In defining reading some people concentrate on the meaningful interpretation of printed materials, others on the process of decording or recording from text to speech (Oaken, Weiner , and Cromer, pp.71-78).

It is evident reading invoives both of these processes. Mackworth has defined successful reading as the achievement of a three-way synthesis among meaning, the spoken word, and the written word (Mackworth, pp 701-733).

Sidwan used a similar definition in his task analysis of word recognition. He specified four types of stimuli: (1) the spoken word pronounced by the teacher (auditory label), (2) the object, act, or concept referred to (the referent), (3) the printed word, and (4) the spoken word produced by the student (oral label.). Successful reading performance requires that the child be able to associated these four stimuli for any particular word.

The indentification of a new word in its printed or written form is made by inspecting its visual appearance, its sound, and its meanings. Recognition develops from additional experience and contact with the word. Because there are several ways to develop word recognition, none of which are adequate or appropriate for all students, a combination approach of two or more techniques will implement the teaching of reading most efficiently. The following categories of word recognition

techniques will be described:

(1) Sight words-sight words are those that a reader immediately recognizes, without analyzing the word and usually without depending on context.

(2) configuration-the visual form or characteristics of the word which distinguishes it from other words.

(3) Context clues-inferring both meaning and pronunciation of a new word from the picture or verbal context.

(4) word analysis-structural analysis (by sight) and phonetic analysis (by sound).

(5) dictionary-to identify a word which is not in the child's speaking-understanding vocabulary.

Sight Words

Historically, sight words were taught in a controlled vocabulary approach beginning with the McGuffy readers and continuing in basal readers until the present day when the trend has reversed, vocabularies have expanded, and Scott, Foresman, in 1971 as example made no reference to sight words, The rate at which a reader accumulates sight words is dependent on individual differences, verbal facility, amount of reading done, type of instruction, and interest in words. The look-say method is the phonic method debate has been quieted by the results of the First Grade Studies which found no one method, in isolation, to be superior to another as an approach to beginning reading and by the research of Jeanne Chall in which no one method of code emphasis was superior. (Chall, pp. 121-130)

Configuration

Learning to use configuration requires visual scrutiny of the word, combined with attention to contextual clues and phonetic analysis clues. Early experimental studies indicated that the general form or outline of the word is a sufficient visual cue to its recognition. (Smith, pp. 92-122)

Context Clues

The teacher usually provides guidance in knowing how to interpret pictures to aid in word recognition. According to Tinker, picture clues should not be emphasized to the point that the child becomes dependent on memorizing the pictures in order to "read" (Tinker, pp. 146-159).

Verbal context clues operate by limiting the number of words which would fit into the meaning of the sentence. Teachers use exercises such as the cloze technique (to fill in a deleted word) or supplying meaning for a nonsense word as training devices for contextual analysis. Context clues should be taught by categories to young children and should be considered an important tool for word recognition according to a study by Askov and Kamm(Askov and Kamm, pp. 341-347). The "idea" clues are suggested by McCullough, experiential background of the reader, comparisons and contrasting words such as synonyms and antonyms, summary (the unknown word is a summary of ideas presented), mood (the tone of the sentence is a clue), definition (the unknown word is defined in surrounding sentences), and the typography used such as italics, capitalization, boldface type, parenthesis, and punctuation. Tinker and McCullough point out, the goal of contextual analysis is not always the exact recognition of a word or its pronunciation but in the reality of meaning and ultimate comprehension. (Tinker, and McCullough, pp. 201-215).

Word Analysis

Phonetic analysis refers to identifying sounds in words from left to right while saying the sounds aloud or subvocally to pronounce the whole word.

The sequence usually incorporated in basal reader series progresses from visual and auditory discrimination, single consonant sounds, consonant substitution, consonant blends and endings, single vowel sounds, vowel digraphs and diphthongs and silent letters.

Training in structural analysis develops the student's ability to recognize the larger units of meaning in words. These units would include syllables, compound words, inflectional endings, prefixes, suffixes and root words. Structural analysis and phonetic analysis are interrelated and used in combination to identify new words. Syllabication and structural analysis are also aids in learning to spell.

Word Perception Process

Spache and Spache cite various forms of word perception in the reading process. Word perception takes many forms, of which only a few are spontaneous to the reader. Most forms must be taught as the reader develops readiness for them. The following is a summary of the word perception processes:

(1) recognition of a word solely by setting or context, such as reading a sign by its shape.

(2) perception by some distinctive detail of the word, plus the general shape.

(3) Configuration given by the ascending and descending letters.

(4) visual recognition of the sound of the first few letters of a word, plus its general shape and the context.

(5) perceiving a word by sounding it letter by letter.

(6) perception of the first half of the word.

(7) perception of the top halves of the letters of the word.

(8) configuration by the pattern on line and circles within the word.

(9) sentence structure or pattern or context.

(10) recognition of a base word and its ending.

(11) compound words and common syllables.

(12) word roots and their affixes (Spache and Spache, pp. 85-96).

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WORD ANALYSIS

Children begin association with written language at the preschool level. They have had much previous exposure to printed signs, labels, books and magazines. They have also spent countless hours scribbling on paper and looking at storybooks while the stories were read aloud. All these experiences provide a strong background for children to encounter aspects of word structure long before they have their first experience with formal reading instruction. But once they begin to read, the quest of applying word structure is an endless process as shown in this study. Lavine (1977) by the time children are three years old they begin to perceive the difference between pictures and written form. Also, preschool age children can perceive what features writing contains and what constitutes a line (Pick, 669-670).

At an early stage children progress from a generalized to a specific word pattern as they mature in their acquisition of word structure as shown in another study by Clark. Clark (1973) suggested that word meaning is done through a gradual process of how an object is perceived, primarily physical characteristics. Then by overextending, children go from a vague reference for a word like horse, meaning anything with four feet, to a specific fixation

on the same object, once meaning is acquired for the object, finally eliminating the improper usage of the word (Smith, 950).

It has been suggested that of (1) perceptual similarity (how children perceive an object) (2) association through contiguity (the location of the object) (3) functional similarity (how an object is like another object) perceptual similarity may be the most powerful.

A child looks at a banana, but to a child it is yellow, long or however the child perceives the banana. Then as the child begins to mature the word banana will have meaning which is the goal eventually.

When a child overextends, all three factors are present, but perceptual similarity does not account for all the overextension responses made by young children. For example, in a study done by Judy Ungerer, it was observed that often when children were asked if a picture of a vase was a flower, they would often say "yes." Vases do not look like flowers, and they do not serve the same function, but are often seen in vases. (thus, overextension because of association through contiguity (Anglin, 159)).

Once children pass the overextension stage, they are ready to go from reference to meaning. In a study of fourteen, children, ranging in age from two years to six years participated. The children were asked various questions and they had to finish the statement. If an answer had something to do with the object that had been

made reference to, then this showed that the child could use reference and meaning in context (Anglin, 159).

Children continue to acquire more knowledge about the verbal concepts that they learn and increasingly incorporate them into a hierarchy of concepts, thus, another step in the final analysis of word structure.

Eventually, children realize that words have three characteristics (1) sound (printed form to sound); (2) written form; (3) meaning, which is the ultimate goal, when they accomplish the decoding skills.

Children do have some knowledge about the characteristics of printed words well before they begin to learn to read. In a study, to demonstrate this point further, 17 kindergarten children were used. The children already had some knowledge of letter-sound relations prior to this.

It was finally surmised that children began to abstract units larger than single letter-sounds. Different things were left out of different words like a middle consonant, final vowel-consonant to see if they could master this skill; 13 children correctly read some of the words on the first attempt during the transfer stage, going from the letter-sound to the printed form (Blatt, 487), proving that children definitely do go through the three steps necessary in decoding.

Once they have learned to translate an unfamiliar printed form of a word to the meaning of the word, then

they can master other decoding skills such as comprehension, content, as well as questions.

The language used most often by parents includes terms of references, which are kin names, animal names and parts of the body. Thus, these are the terms which children use first when acquiring words. Parents definitely do play a significant role in language acquisition, and the naming practices of children.

It might be asked at what age children are geared for reading readiness. Authorities have suggested about 6 1/2 years of age is the age for average success in first grade. To substantiate this finding, Dean, in studying 116 first graders, concluded that if the first graders were 6 1/2 or above a greater percentage of the group made average progress in reading (Smith, 91).

In the past decade many have asked about the question of sex differences and the effect it has on reading. Numerous studies have conclusive evidence that boys do have more difficulty in reading than girls. One study involving 6,364 children in grades two to sixth, found that 18.6 percent of the boys had difficulty in reading and only 9.8 percent of the girls had difficulty in reading. Another study done by Macmeeken supported the same theory.

He studied 383 Scottish children between the ages of 7 1/2 and 10 1/2, found that 12.2 percent of the boys had difficulty reading and 6.2 percent of the girls had difficulty reading. In this study a child was considered

retarded or slower if his reading age was no more than 85 percent of their mental age (Smith, 91).

Also the question whether a child is ready for reading comes to mind when you think of word structure. Durrell predicted a very simple method. He recommended teaching the child three to ten words which have no distinguishing marks that can be associated with individual words. Then after an hour see how many the child remembers. The child who can successfully recalls the words is ready for reading.

There are basically three kinds of listening: (1) appreciative, (2) critical, and (3) discriminative. In order for a child to improve in word analysis skills, students must be trained in all three areas of listening.

Here are some suggestions which may be used when teaching word analysis skills:

(1) You could show pictures of objects whose names begin with the same consonant sound.

(2) Do matching pictures with beginning like consonant sounds.

(3) Expand the activity to name objects in the room that begin with the same sound.

(4) Let the class cut pictures from magazines of objects whose names begin with the same sound.

(5) Short story books in order to promote sequence and also individualize which is very needed in word analysis.

(6) Take advantage of small group activities. Use cloze strategies when possible.

(7) Games, when applicable to the lesson.

(8) Newspaper work for sequence of events.

(9) Have students do a time line.

(10) Telegraphic Approach - Ask the students to list the who, what, where, how of the article. Then have them go from basic details to main ideal.

(11) Word display chart.

(12) Listening lessons to aid comprehension.

(13) The main thing in any word analysis program is to be systematic, organized and consistent.

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PHONICS

Phonics is the method used in the teaching of reading as a means of helping the student in gaining independence in the recognition of words. Phonics incorporates the use of speech sounds and letters used to represent those sounds (Dictionary of Education).

Stress upon the sounding of letters and syllables in reading and spelling had its beginning in America in the nineteenth century. Since that time phonetic instruction has been subjected to periods of popularity and unpopularity. Slight or extensive use of phonetic instruction such as the syllable method, the alphabet method, the word method, and special modifications of these methods has periodically increased or declined. Inconsistency and controversy historically has plagued the use of phonics in the teaching of reading (Agnew, 3).

Various inferences have been drawn from the results of studies on the influence of phonics in the reading program. The results of the studies have been inconclusive leading to controversies among educators to the validity of teaching phonics in the elementary school (Agnew, 3-8).

Increasing recognition of previously learned words, aiding recognition of new words, encouraging

correct pronunication, and improving oral reading were arguments supporting the use of phonics in the reading program. Some evidence against the use of phonetic training asserted that it tended to decrease interest in reading content, neglected context clues, and decreased the speed of oral reading (Agnew, 44).

Research studies for the years 1930 to 1950 in phonics in relation to achievement in reading varied as to the number of subjects, the ages of those studied, and the time length of the investigations. The following conclusions and observations of the studies were:

> Phonic training bears considerable positive relationship to oral skills of word pronunication and word recognition.
> Phonic ability is partially a function of training and, at the primary level, largely a function of mental age.
> Training in phonics before a mental age of 7 years is wasteful.
> Formal phonic training at the early school level makes no measurable contribution to comprehension in silent reading.
> At the upper elementary and junior high school age phonic ability and reading comprehension seem positively related.
> Of the types of phonetic training studied, incidental phonics experience related to a meaningful language arts program contributes measurably to success in silent reading as measured by objective tests.
> Some word analysis techniques bear a measurable relationship to successful spelling study in the elementary school (Burrows, 10, 15-16)

Results of a study on word attack skills of unrecognized words in forty-six first-grade teachers' manuals and workbooks from three basal reading series were double in the 1970's when compared to the 1930's

and 1950's. The study showed although the companies were similiar in their emphases, Scott, Foresman workbooks of the 1970's contained the highest percentage of materials devoted to word attack skills (Froman, 48).

A sample of 257 students was administered tests in order to compare the effects of two different programs for implementing the language experience approach to beginning reading with no formal language experience program (a basic reader approach and phonic supplement) on reading achievement, listening comprehension, oral language development, and attitude toward reading. The tests concluded that the researcher's program produced reading achievement scores better than those produced by either of the other programs and both of the language experience programs had produced more favorable scores on attitude toward reading and oral language development than the scores produced by no formal language experience program (Fishman, 1872A)

A random sample and a sample of retarded readers from the fourth and sixth grades were chosen to be tested in the areas of auditory perception, visual perception, and phonics abilities. Equal numbers of males and females were selected. It was found that the correlation coefficients between auditory perception and visual perception, auditory perception and phonics ability, and visual perception and phonics ability were significantly different from zero. There was no significant differences in relation to auditory

perception, visual perception, and phonics ability according to grade level or sex. In the means of the subgrouping of retarded readers and the means of the random sample on perception variable there was a significant difference (Fouse, 4278A).

Fifteen second graders were analyzed on oral reading errors to differentiate strategies use by good and poor readers. It was found that good readers often used context clues and poor readers relied on visual-phonic information. It was suggested from the study that the Kamehameha Early Education Program have more instruction in the use of context clues placed into their curriculum (Au, 44).

Research from the Kamehameha Early Education Program (KEEP) was conducted in four areas: student industriousness, reading readiness, teaching of sound-symbol relationships and language. The report indicated the necessity of industriousness alone was not sufficient to produce grade-level reading achievement, but it was an important factor. It was found that better reading achievement was directly related to an intensive readiness program. Investigations discovered that sound-symbol relationships were an integral part of reading, but were not easily learned by the KEEP students. Therefore, the students should not be taught by methods emphasizing phonics (Au, 45).

Reading can be confusing to those students taught to go strictly by rules in sounding vowels.

The expectancy for consistency of vowel sounds can confuse students more when they are faced with natural language. Most educators realize the fallibility of generalizations and "exception to the rule" (Hillerich, 94).

The "exploration" technique avoids rule rote memorization or ignores it completely. Using this technique, the student can identify the vowel sound without regard to the way a word is spelled. The student, however, must understand what sound is being discussed in order to accomplish the learning of this system without worrying about distortion because of the ability to voice the vowel sounds in isolation. The exploration of vowel sounds enhances reading and spelling skills, prepares the student for effective dictionary usage, and allows each student to work at his or her own rate (Hillerich, 94).

The trend of today appears to be disappearing from the phonics method of teaching reading. Research is constantly being conducted for newer and better methods to improve reading achievement.

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VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

Vocabulary development comes from a variety of experiences--touching, tasting, smelling, seeing and hearing. Words connected with these experiences take on meaning. Words are important in communication because they interact with each other to convey an idea.

The average child acquires a large hearing vocabulary and a smaller speaking vocabulary during his preschool years. By the time he enters school, a child's concepts have become relatively rich. (Tinker, 156)

The development of sight-word recognition, which is the ability to recall whole words from visual memory is a part of vocabulary growth. Vocabulary growth is based on the experiences of the learner. Words are only symbols to those who cannot read. Words begin to take on meaning when they relate to concepts that are learned through experience. Words must be associated with meaning in order to be helpful in communication. (Quandt, 92)

According to Quandt, there are four types of vocabulary: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening vocabulary increases when the child associates what is heard with existing experiences. Listening vocabulary is usually the largest of the four until the beginning of high school when reading vocabulary exceeds it. As the child begins to talk, a speaking vocabulary is added. Later reading and writing vocabularies develop somewhat simultaneously. However, reading vocabulary usually surpasses that of writing. (Quandt, 92)

There are two types of reading vocabulary: sight and meaning. Sight vocabulary is the recognition of words as whole units. Sight

vocabulary contains words that a reader recognizes because they are a part of his or her visual memory. When a child sees these words, their pronunciation and basic meaning are rapidly recognized. Many times sight words are learned from repeated exposure to them. This type of learning is effective when the repetitions have meaning or something they can relate to. (Petty, 46)

Meaning vocabulary is associating meaning to words when they appear in context. Meaning vocabulary is not a problem for most beginning readers because they already know the meanings of most words in their beginning readers. Important goals for them would be word refinement, clarification and expansion. (Petty, 48)

Both meaning and sight vocabulary are important for continued reading growth. Both types rely on personal experiences because they are related to understanding. (Quandt, 93)

Teachers can be creative and innovative in the ways that they help children expand vocabulary. Teachers might select some vocabulary activities from the following list:

weaving cloth
preparing and tasting foods
field trips of many different types
building a life-size model of an animal
taking apart a simple appliance
building dioramas
conducting a hobby show
collecting and polishing stones
planting seeds and watching them grow
tape recording
building and operating a store
dramatization

In comparison to real experiences vicarious experiences are those that do not involve physical participation. They can be related to any of the areas of communication, listening, reading, speaking, writing

and watching. Other vicarious experiences are also possible, such as:

viewing films
listening to records, tapes or radio
viewing TV
skimming informational publications
listening to guest speakers
sharing photographs
creative writing
conversation
demonstrations (Quandt, 96-98)

Real or vicarious experiences are not enough by themselves to build vocabulary. A child needs to associate the experiences with language to follow the experiences that are provided. (Burns and Broman, 296)

The role of the teacher in providing for vocabulary growth is to identify the experiences that the learners need, supply appropriate experiences, associate language with the experience and demonstrate enthusiasm. (Quandt, 103)

In conclusion Dechant provides a list to the teacher of ways to improve your students' vocabulary.

1. Broaden your experiences
2. Develop a systematic method of studying words
3. Keep a vocabulary notebook
4. Study the word in its context
5. Associate the word with a mental picture
6. Study carefully those words that are pronounced alike, but that have different spellings
7. Use the new words in writing and in speech
8. Study the technical vocabulary of your subject matter (Dechant, 22)

"Children who advance in communication including reading, are better able to express themselves and empathize with their fellow humans and they grow in feelings of success and self-worth." (Quandt, 99)

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READING COMPREHENSION

The ultimate goal of reading is comprehension. Despite the numerous treatments of "reading-thinking" skills, current evaluations indicate a deficiency in this area. Some extensive studies have been made of the use of varied strategies in teaching reading as a means of improving comprehension. The assessment and results of these studies offer some general guidelines for improving reading comprehension.

Miller states that the development of comprehension is the most important part of the reading process because reading without understanding is mere verbalism. The reader must have effective word recognition skills and a good meaning vocabulary if comprehension is to take place. The development of literal and inferential comprehension ability should begin in the first grade, but inferential comprehension skills should receive almost total emphasis at the secondary level. Critical reading is best developed by the reader's answering questions that call for critical responses (Miller, 185-191).

In Cunningham's study, he shows how the acts of listening and reading are different and alike. Listeners cannot control the speaker's dialect or the rate of speech, nor can they relisten. On the other hand, the reader must often translate the written material to a more verbal code. In both reading and listening, the receiver gets a message and

tries to construe the meaning. In seeking a way to help the vast number of students who can say the word but do not know what it says, one such strategy that can be used is a listening-reading transfer lesson. Three principles are crucial to successful listening-reading transfer lessons. First the students are asked to do the same thing while reading as they do while listening. Second, specific purposes are set for the listening and reading. Third, the students answer a specific kind of question and explain how they arrived at a certain answer (Cunningham, 168-172).

Lewis read aloud to a group of upper elementary school students from a book of reading exercises, but he gave no instruction in how to improve listening. This group improved in reading significantly more than a group that was not read to regularly (Lewis, 89-95).

A study by Merson was undertaken in an effort to determine the effect of a definite program of planned listening lessons on the listening comprehension, reading comprehension and reading vocabulary of fourth grade students. The definite program of forty-five planned listening lessons used in the study had a positive and significant effect on the reading comprehension of this group (Merson, 3120-3121).

Duke made a study to determine the effectiveness of a modified cloze procedure using context clues as a means for improving the reading comprehension of third grade students. The experimental group's basal reading program was supplemented by thirty-six lessons of fifteen minutes each, three times a week. The lessons utilized seven types of context

clues. The results showed that the strategy of using the modified cloze procedure was an effective method in producing significant word gain knowledge, reading comprehension, and total reading achievement (Duke, 7108-A).

A study by Gunn and Elkins was made to evaluate the relationship between cloze demands and reading comprehension. A series of exercises, including word attack, sentence completion and vocabulary development tasks, was given regularly to the students in the third grade. It was found that the program was valuable for diagnostic purposes and was effective in raising the children's reading comprehension skills. This was after both an initial and subsequent period of eight weeks (Gunn and Elkins, 45).

The study by Hafner advocated the use of the context to improve reading comprehension. The cloze procedure was used to show the effectiveness of teaching students to use content to comprehend the meaning of unfamiliar words in a passage. The students that received planned instruction in using context to build word meaning attained higher levels of reading comprehension than students who had not received such instruction (Hafner, 472-474).

Chapman stated that a study of two-hundred thirty students in the elementary and middle schools was conducted by using cloze procedure to discover how fluent and nonfluent readers had mastered anaphoric (linking back to something that had gone before) processes as demonstrated by the use of pronouns. The fluent readers showed a much greater ability to cope with this (Chapman, 43).

A study by Wolf, Huck and King demonstrated that teaching students to apply logical reasoning to printed material did result in an increase in the critical-reading ability of students of all intelligence levels (Wolf, Huck and King, 85).

Stoot, in his study, concluded that beginning reading instruction that emphasizes learning the printed code for the spoken language leads to superior reading achievement. Students taught a decoding strategy before called upon to read whole words became better readers than those who began by memorizing whole words. Not only was reading achievement higher in decoding, but also in the ultimate goal of reading instruction---comprehension (Stoot, 374-383).

Harker recommended the teaching of general comprehension skills that could be applied in a variety of contextual settings. As the student grows in the ability to analyze, he can solve comprehension tasks and use the skills to solve the demands that content area reading requires (Harker, 26).

Smith and Dechant maintain that intelligence and vocabulary skills are basic determinants of school achievement which also correlate highly with comprehension. The good reader learns to bring the proper meaning to the printed or written material at a satisfactory rate, and the rate varies with the nature of the reading task (Smith and Dechant, 214-222).

The results of the studies indicate that there are strategies that have improved reading comprehension and give some generalizations that can be made. (1) Without

comprehension reading is mere verbalism; (2) The development of comprehension abilities is the most important facet of the reading process; (3) The basic reading skills of word recognition, comprehension and rate do not operate independently; (4) Listening and reading comprehension are closely related and can be improved through listening-reading transfer lessons; (5) Reading to students improves listening abilities; (6) Using the context to build word meaning improves reading comprehension; (7) The cloze procedure can be valuable for diagnostic purposes and for improvement of reading comprehension; (8) Students taught the decoding strategy become better readers; (9) General comprehension skills can be used to solve demands in a variety of contextual settings; and (10) Intelligence and school achievement correlate highly with reading comprehension.

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CONTENT AREA READING

Reading is an important aid to learning content; therefore, if the teacher really believes that the content is worthwhile, s/he must feel responsible for helping students develop reading and study skills (Heilman, p. 475). Artley states that

> ...the teaching of a particular subject is the teaching of the study of that subject, and that makes inescapable the fact that every teacher is a teacher of reading and study (Artley: Harris and Sipay, eds., p. 293).

Content areas often require the use of more specialized reading and study skills than are ordinarily encountered in the basic reading program; however, certain factors operate in all reading situations. Lack of ability to meet new and complex reading demands will surely result in a lack of interest for the subject. The nature of the reading materials requires special attention; specialized vocabularies, rapidly introduced concepts, and specialized study and synthesis skills are inherent in content areas (Heilman, pp. 431-433).

The reading consultant/supervisor can be a valuable asset to content teachers. There are extra demands on teachers who wish to incorporate the teaching of reading skills with subject matter. Teachers often feel inadequate because of a lack of training (Koenke and Monteith, pp. 8-9). Many have negative attitudes toward having this responsibility; however, studies indicate a gradual change in teachers' attitudes about improving reading because of an increasing realization of the

high positive correlation between reading ability and academic success (Courtney: Smith, ed., pp. 31-32).

What positive action can be taken to improve reading in the content areas? This paper will investigate the answers to this question by making general observations and suggestions about the reading program as a whole and by suggesting resources for the reading consultant/supervisor as well as for content area teachers.

A well-balanced school-wide reading program must be established and maintained. The reading curriculum should include developmental instruction, remedial/corrective instruction, and recreational reading; it should also include definite plans in the content areas which complement and enlarge the overall program (Heilman, p. 430). The ideal program depends on the full cooperation among the reading specialist, the administration, and the teachers (Miller, Howard, p. 4).

The basis for success in content areas must be established in the primary grades. Specialized vocabulary should be introduced early through oral language and other activities which are a result of well-planned units of study. There are reading series at both primary and intermediate levels which contain special materials designed for special reading skills needed in content areas (Miller, Wilma, p. 193).

The ideal reading program demands flexibility of reading teachers who may have to adapt to varying situations in a school-wide program. The reading specialist should be free to act as general advisor and resource person and to

offer special help for students with specific reading problems. Miller describes one approach for the specialist to take in the event the content area teachers are not enthusiastic and supportive. They are asked to prepare behavioral objectives and create non-reading learning materials to teach their content. Then the reading specialist develops the reading program, based on the content objectives. Such a system makes it possible for the students to receive special instruction in word recognition, comprehension, and study skills at the same time they are learning the content (Miller, Howard, p. 8).

The ideal reading program will also provide for in-service training for teachers, both in group sessions and in individual contacts. The reading specialist should be aware of current research and be ready to help content teachers develop strategies which will meet their particular needs. Koenke and Monteith have supplied an extensive annotated bibliography of resources for general reading instruction and specific suggestions in the areas of English, math, science, and social studies (Koenke and Monteith, pp. 18-34).

Koenke and Monteith also include a teacher self-assessment checklist to help teachers gain an awareness of practices in the teaching of reading in the content areas. Teachers are asked to decide whether the practices apply Seldom, Never, Sometimes, or Almost Always in their classrooms. The checklist, as reported by Koenke and Monteith, is included here because it refers to some very important areas that need attention.

1. Text material used is suited in difficulty to the reading levels of the students.

2. Students are encouraged through assignments to read widely in related materials.

3. Adequate time is taken to introduce the format of the text and to discuss how it may be read effectively.

4. Adequate attention is given to vocabulary and concepts introduced in the various units.

5. The teacher knows the special study skills involved in the subject and teaches them.

6. The assignments are made clearly and concisely.

7. Students are taught to use appropriate reference materials.

8. The teacher takes advantage of opportunities that may arise to encourage students to read recreational as well as information reading matter.

9. The teacher helps the poor reader to develop adequate reading skills.

10. Readings from various textbooks are provided for those who cannot read the regular text.

11. Students are grouped within the classroom for differentiated instruction.

12. The teacher knows the reading level of the textbook being used.

13. The teacher knows the reading ability of the students from standardized tests, other evaluative materials and/or cumulative records.

14. The teacher illustrates the dominant writing patterns of a given content area (Koenke and Monteith, pp. 9-10).

The actual implementation of strategies in planning and instruction is absolutely necessary. It does no good to be made aware if knowledge is not used in teaching practices (Sargent: Robinson, Thomas, eds., p. 23).

Teachers should know the reading levels of both students and textbooks. A student's reading achievement level as indicated by a single grade equivalent or percentile number may not give an accurate picture of his instructional level. Such scores usually indicate the highest level of achievement, which is well above the student's instructional level (Koenke and Monteith, p. 10).

Teachers should know as much as possible about the textbook. Valuable insight may result from having an idea about the readability level of the text (Clary, p. 3). But, just knowing readability level may not be enough. Maxwell warns that readability formulas and interest measures have limitations because they do not take into consideration the semantics and syntax (Maxwell, p. 526). Strange and Allington recommend that particular attention be given to conceptual difficulty and decoding ease of vocabulary and paragraph difficulty based on importance to goal, syntax, and vocabulary (Strange and Allington, pp. 149-152). Harker suggests readability, concept load, background information, organization, and format and style as criteria for selection of materials (Harker, p. 126).

In the final analysis the choice of materials must be based on the knowledge of the students (Harker, p. 129). Koenke and Monteith offer an impressive annotated bibliography of resources available to aid teachers in matching readers with materials (Koenke and Monteith, pp. 13-17). Use of the cloze passage, which involves deleting words at intervals and having students fill in the blanks with appropriate words, has received

considerable research attention and is believed to be an excellent indicator of the abilities of students to comprehend the material (Koenke and Monteith, p. 13).

Much of the success of content area reading depends on the availability of appropriate materials. Reference materials, related materials, special materials for the poor reader as well as the excellent reader should all be available. By using a wide variety of materials which range from easy to difficult, teachers can differentiate assignments and thus encourage wide reading (Koenke and Monteith, pp. 9-10).

Probably the most important aspect of teaching reading in content areas is that of preparing students to read and guiding reading activities. Many teachers already use the Directed Reading Activity and SQR3 (Survey, Question, Read, Review, Recite) approaches. Other approaches, for example Manzo's Guided Reading Procedure, are designed to increase students' comprehension. Another procedure involves asking various types of questions to develop a variety of comprehension skills, from noting details to drawing conclusions (Clary, pp. 5-7).

Other techniques may be effective in certain situations and may provide variety. These include the use of audio-visual materials; the buddy system, where a competent reader works with a troubled one; flexible assignments; lower level textbooks; the language experience approach; and the individualized approach where library materials including newspapers, magazines, and supplementary books are used (Clary, pp. 9-10).

There are many excellent sources of teaching strategies

for content areas. (See Appendix of this Handbook.) One such source, Fusing Reading Skills and Content, edited by Robinson and Thomas, was written by classroom teachers who actually employed the strategies described. The book contains rationale and suggestions for the traditional subject areas as well as for areas such as physical education and French (Robinson and Thomas, eds.).

Professional journals are also sources of innovative techniques. An especially interesting article by James gives suggestions for developing vocabulary in physical education and health classes (James, pp. 56-57). Cassidy describes activities relating to reading in the social studies area, including vocabulary development, map/graph reading, recognizing propaganda, previewing, and study skills (Cassidy, pp. 62-64).

In conclusion, teaching content is teaching reading; teaching reading is teaching content. Special attention should be given to organizing the school-wide reading program so that content area reading is an integral part of the program. Attention should be given to matching the students to the materials, providing readiness and guided reading activities, encouraging wide reading, using a variety of materials, and individualizing instruction to meet the needs of all students.

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RATE OF READING

The efficient reader demonstrates flexibility, adjusting his rate according to the reading task at hand. While speed in many situations is highly desirable, constant speed is not a characteristic of a highly skilled, purposeful reader. It is desirable for each student to acquire reading rates along a continuum from slow and careful to very rapid reading, to develop techniques of scanning and skimming, and to learn to identify the situations for which each is appropriate. (Thomas and Robinson, 188)

It is rate of reading rather than speed of reading - that is important because rate suggests adjustment. To decide on a rate of reading requires that the reader makes a decision. It is important that the reader learns how to declare his own purposes for reading and how to adjust his rate accordingly. (Stauffer, 438)

Four general categories of rate adjustment may be declared: skimming, scanning, survey reading, and study reading. Each reader should be thoroughly acquainted with the attributes that distinguish one adjustment from another so that he can use each effectively when reading different materials of different degrees of flexibility. (Stauffer, 438)

Skimming is the ability to read swiftly and lightly to locate bits of information literally stated. Usually the answers sought are stated in a word or two or a phrase, and the reader can skim along exceedingly fast. Answers sought are usually in response to a who, what, when or a where question and seldom are in response to a why or how question. (Stauffer, 438)

Scanning is the ability to read along at a good rate on a point by point basis locating literal information. Scanning differs from skimming in that the answer to a question may be located in different parts of a selection and thus require the reader to do more than locate a single fact or a series of isolated facts. (Stauffer, 440)

Study reading is the ability to read carefully and reflectively, even rereading, so as to pass judgement. This kind of reading requires a better grasp of information than recalling and dealing with literal information. The reader must be able to read critically and creatively, to read between the lines, to weigh ideas against personal experience and knowledge, to evaluate ideas against an acceptable standard, to use the ideas and to remember them over a long period of time. (Stauffer, 441)

Survey reading is preview or overview reading. By surveying, the efficient reader determines what information may be gained, how much of this information is essential, how the information may be used, and what level of comprehension is needed. (Stauffer, 469)

In order to investigate the effect of experimental-controlled reading speeds on the comprehension of multi-level reading passages and to assess the effects of operant-regulated or self-regulated conditions on reading speed, two studies sampled a total of 400 eighth graders. Two passages, originally written at the eighth grade level, were rewritten at the fourth and twelfth grade levels. Students then read composite passages and were tested on their comprehension. One group of subjects was asked to adjust reading speed to the passages difficulty; another group received two prompts while reading that signaled the need to read faster. It was apparent that, as reading speed increased, comprehension decreased. Prompts did however, produce greater speed scores than did self-regulation. (Smith, 44)

To help students develop techniques which lead to maximum reading efficiency, it is first necessary to help them develop a positive self-image. Growing evidence is focusing attentions on self-image as the crucial determiner of progress. Poor progress in reading at the elementary level leads to poor self-image, which in turn hinders the student work at the secondary and college levels. Studies of students in college-level reading classes show that students with a high self-image read significantly faster than students with a below-average self-image. (Brown, 41)

Internal rate adjustments, shifts of rate within a single task are sometimes necessary. Some signals to

reduce speed are: unfamiliar terms, difficult sentence or paragraph structure, difficult concepts, detailed technical material, difficult and detailed direction, material on which you want detailed retention, material with a diagram, requiring shifting from text to diagram, material you wish to weigh carefully, material that requires "visualizing time," and artistic writing which invites your lingering. Signals to increase speed are: simple materials with few new ideas to you, examples and illustrations unnecessary for understanding, detailed explanation and elaboration which you do not need, ideas which are restatements of previous ones, material from which you want only the more important idea or facts. (Thomas and Robinson, 208)

For students who need guidance in acquiring rapid rates of reading, encourage practice with highly interesting material read for less exacting purposes. Provide timed practice exercises and give assignments that call for general impression. Use instruments to force more rapid reading. While pacers produced by many manufacturers vary, with all pacers a cover, bar or beam of light moves down the page, pressuring the student to increase his rate. Pacer training is motivational for most students and profitable for many as long as word recognition, vocabulary and comprehension skills are already adequate. (Thomas and Robinson, 219)

Many so called procedures for training eye movement or for controlled reading result in improved speed. The improvement obtained by eye movement training, with or without elaborate apparatus, is no greater than that resulting from motivated reading alone. Experiments concerned with pacing eye movements and controlled reading usually involve other techniques and are never divorced from increased motivation. The use of pacing devices too often becomes a ritual tending toward an overemphasis upon the mechanics of reading to the sacrifice of adequate attention to the more important processes of perception, apprehension and assimilation. The tachistoscope is without value for increasing speed of reading. (Tinker, 214)

Compressed speech tapes--recordings of a voice reading a selection at the normal rate of approximately 150 words per minute that are speeded up to as much as 400 words a minute--can be used successfully with students to provide practice in improving reading rate and comprehension. Analysis of the results of a study of pretests and posttests indicated that class members improved significantly in both reading speed and reading comprehension. (Berg, 54)

It is possible and highly desirable to increase the speed of many students on certain types of reading matter and in certain reading situations. Students whose habits are overly conscientious when the situation does not demand close reading should be assisted to increase their

reading rate appropriately. Many students who read slowly do so because rate flexibility is blocked by deficiencies in basic skills. Instruction in skills of comprehension may be necessary before speed can be increased. (Thomas and Robinson, 192)

The problem to be solved by the teacher is not always whether the pupil's rate of reading is too slow or too fast, but rather how the speed he employs in each task aids or hinders him in accomplishing the true purpose of the situations. A pattern of high rate-low comprehension is often taken at face value as indicating a need for comprehension training. It is also quite possible that the pattern may be due to over confidence resulting in superficial comprehension, or to the illusion that rapid reading is the best approach to almost any material. It is true that increasing rate does help improve comprehension in simple materials as the rate approaches the speed of association possible for the reader; while extremly slow rate impeded reading as a true thinking act and thus reduces comprehension. But increasing rate in difficult materials always results in decreased comprehension. (Spache, 256)

Instructors concerned with encouraging the use of a full reperbory of reading rates may find the following sequence useful. A first step is acquiring insights into the attainments and needs of students. The concept or rate adjustment should be introduced and grasped.

Appropriate guidance in acquiring the full range of rates should be provided. Much teacher guidance in identifying the approach suitable for different reading situations is necessary. Students should identify the suitable approach for an assignment with gradually decreasing guidance from the instructor. The long range goal is independence with student proficient in selecting for himself the appropriate approach. (Thomas and Robinson, 201)

Recent work has a new approach, particularly that of Frank Smith, who developed a feature analysis model of reading. As we can identify letters in different configurations or before all the strokes are completed, so can we identify words before all the letters are filled in, and comprehend sentences and paragraphs even if some words are left out. The process of reading consists of reducing uncertainty about a text by assigning the various configurations to mental or semantic categories established during the acquisition of language. Feature analysis is consistent with speed reading, as a person uses the redundancy of the text and finds predictive features to extract information from a text quickly. (Sandberg, 77)

In conclusion, the ideal product of the reading program evidences the following understandings and abilities with respect to rates of reading: The student has acquired the concept of rate adjustment. He has acquired reading rates along a continuum from slow and careful to

rapid reading, and he has developed techniques for scanning and skimming. He demonstrates the ability to identify the reading situation for which each approach is appropriate. He has built rate adjustment into his permanent habits, shifting in view of three considerations, the difficulty of the material for him, his purpose at the moment, and his familiarity with the subject matter at hand. (Thomas and Robinson, 190)

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INTERESTS AND MOTIVATION

The thrust of interest and motivation in the Jr. High and Secondary level is probably one of the most needed aspects of our contempory school system. The question is asked by the educators, the parents, and the media, "Why aren't our students reading?". The responsibility is bi-fold - instructor and parental models.

Motivation is a multi-faceted force (Indrisano, 94). Individuals have different drives, attitudes, and habits due to past learning experiences (Glazzard, 106). A careful analysis of instructional objectives and school learning tasks (e.g., reading) are necessary for the instructor to apply means of motivation necessary to achieve success on an individual basis (Hall,-Allen,D. ed., 594). Students work most effectively when the range of challenge falls into their level of ability. They have little desire to attempt assignments they feel are too difficult or cannot be handled without some measure of success. Objectives should be to motivate for achievement (Cooper, 260).

Help the students learn to enjoy reading by providing reading materials and time to read. As an instructor, present a model of a lifelong reader. Carry a book to class; read with the students (Indrisano, 95). Rathbun (122) shows that "the more they read, the sharper their skills, the sharper their skills, the more they'll read---" a continuing process.

The traditional responsibility of the instructor to select materials of interest, faces two problems. At the beginning of the year the instructor does not know the individual needs of the students or their levels of ability. Through the use of interest inventories, Lamberg (40-44) discusses the varieties of inventories which may be given and then repeated throughout the year to provide materials and guide students toward interesting sources. A major value of the inventories is to the students, themselves. For the students to identify their interests, they will later be able to measure their growth as they do a greater variety of reading.

Lamberg's varieties of inventories are to be used for specific types of evaluation. The general "Interest Inventory", to be given at the beginning of the year, is just as the title implies. The "Activities Inventory" is a list of choices that the students would select to do during their free class time. It is interesting to note the word "reading" is not present in either of these inventories.

The purpose of the "Activities Inventory" is to use the information in scheduling the class period by having the students do free reading for a period of time and then rewarding in the form of an activity they would enjoy. This inventory is purposeful for the "highly reluctant reader". Lamberg (42) reports from studies, that as students learn to make wiser selections and read for longer periods of time, reading itself will become increasingly more rewarding and there will be less need for other

activities to serve as a reward.

After the reading time is set on a regular schedule, the inventory of "Problems and Goals should be given. This is a self-assessment inventory and with insight the instructor evaluates the problems of the reader through his responses. An example would be the students' affirmative answers when asked if they felt they were spending too much time on reading for the amount of pages they had finished. The instructor sees a need for the students to work toward increasing their rate of reading (Lamberg, 42).

The "Reading Interest Inventory" is given to help the students expand their reading interests. Within the inventory the students rate the varieties of materials they enjoy reading (Lamberg, 43). Indrisano (108) also asks the students if they liked to read, who helped them to enjoy reading and how do they choose a book when they read for themselves.

The "Content Related Inventory" is a chief source of expanding interests. An example is twenty questions given in Lamberg's (43) list envolving a unit on "Man and the Sea". The choices range from historical and current reading, poems, scientific articles, and sports to pamphlets about careers at sea. There is something for everyone on every level of interest and learning. It is the instructor's responsibility to have materials ready and available before administering the inventory (Robinson, 67-85).

Richard Snow (-Allen, D. ed., 251) discusses the California Psychological Inventory which is geared for use with

normal high school students. This test is administered by a counselor and interpreted by them in consultation with the instructor. They are used in understanding the behavior of individual students to identify interests as well as emotional problems that are important to seek ways of individualized motivation. Parental interviews are used in conjunction with this test to make the parents aware of the students' capabilities and to expect from them only that of which they are capable (Jordan -Allen, D. ed., 677). The parents may not be aware that a source of demotivation is coming from the home. The parents of low achieving students correct them in a more negative way than the parents of high achievers. Working with the parents and students provides a better instructor-student relationship (Lamme, 1-20).

The reading center in the classroom should be built for varied interests and reading levels. Adventure, sports, romance, mysteries, and the supernatural will fall into someone's niche until particular interests are noted from the interest inventories and reading levels are attained. Most of the selections should be geared toward the average students. If your average students seem to be reading below level, accept the situation and start scouting (Rathbun, 126-128).

Good reading materials are found through publisher's catalogs of high-interest, low-vocabulary books. The instructor's knowledge of these lists is pertinent to the selection of books he needs for his class's reading level. "The Reader's Digest Drama in Real Life Series" is suggested

by Rathbun (126) and "Classroom Choices", an annotated list from the November 1975, "The Reading Teacher", mentioned by Indrisano (95) are among many.

Rathbun (129) motiviates reading by deemphasizing the book report; making it semi-optional. This challenges students to more reading when they do not have to consider that the reading will result in a "grade". The method is followed by the students writing a brief review on a 5 x 7 card and filed under their name. The amount of reading done could improve a grade, but would not necessarily penalize students who had read nothing. An instructor should certainly make note when the low level reader responds. He would then demonstrate recognition accordingly.

Reading interests can also be achieved through television's relationship to books and human development. Students spend three times as many hours viewing television as they do in the classroom. The instructor must create interest and motivate the students to make this time productive.

It is the instructor's obligation to view the programs most watched by the students and plan activities based on these programs first. Then encourage viewing of specific programs which lend themselves to group study. Make students aware of programs which have resulted from written works, such as, "Little House on the Prairie" and "The Walton's" (Smith and Hawkins, 83).

Lund describes the influence of television on teen-age readers in her discussion of the responses to the author

and program station after the production of "Eric", the story of a young boy preparing for college who develops leukemia. She gives evidence that television can stir imagination, emotions, and awaken curiosity. It can motivate reluctant readers out of "apathy" and become a "stimulus" to reading (Lund, 1-9).

Jane Hall (32) reports the upcoming 1979-80 season of programs with which to be familiar. They are based on biographies or literary works which could be used for interest and motivational projects. CBS will produce "To Race the Wind" based on the life of Harold Krents, a blind student attending Harvard who goes on to become a lawyer. A new production for PBS will be the Mark Twain series. Several of Twain's books will not have ever been dramatized. The series will begin during the fall season.

The goal of the instructor should be for students to realize that what they are viewing can also be found in written form (Smith and Hawkins, 83).

A Resource Guide for Secondary School Teaching by Kim and Kellough presents an annotated list of one hundred twenty-five motivational strategies from general ideas, such as, clearly understood objectives in the classroom to ideas for specific content areas (79-95). A section for games and "microlab", or small group communication, provides interesting activities for personal development. Listings of instructional aids, resources, and suggestions for their uses is an invaluable chapter (135-142). This chapter also contains a bibliography of free and inexpensive resources

which are available for secondary teaching. It is not feasible to include the wealth of information from this text. It should be a part of all educator's professional library.

In conclusion it is evident that education is based on the interest and motivation of the instructor and fellow educators. Know thyself and thy students. Schedule a time for reading and provide materials of interest for all students regardless of their abilities. Guide and motivate for independence in reading and environment. Plan objectives for individual differences and give recognition for goals achieved. Be knowledgeable of interests the media in this era has to offer. Be a model.

> "The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires."
>
> -William A. Ward

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This report is intended to aid remedial reading teachers and future remedial reading teachers who teach or plan to teach remedial reading in American schools. It is designed primarily to provide information on effective methods for correcting reading deficiencies in public schools in America. This report is also intended to supplement the remedial reading teacher's knowledge and to bring to the attention of other readers a brief sampling of a few successful techniques used in the area of remedial reading.

The report leads off with a brief background of remedial reading in American school systems. There is a brief section on general techniques of correcting reading disorders. Other selections in this report are on specific techniques used effectively in corrective reading, and new innovations in remedial corrective reading. Though this report is not long, it should be of great interest to students and teachers of remedial education, as well as to other classroom teachers. Thus, this report is not intended for the reading teacher alone; it is rather for all teachers, because all teachers basically share the responsibility for improving reading in public schools and school systems. This report has one broad major goal, and that is to present some of the best corrective measures used in remedial reading.

Remedial reading instruction in American secondary schools began after World War I. (Cowan, page 339) As a result of the American public's awareness of illiteracy among many adult laborers and public school children, remedial reading programs began to progress in the mid-1930's. The remedial programs were slowed down by a lack of funds in 1942; however, under the influence of post-war idealism, fresh efforts were made to get the remedial reading programs started again.

Although remedial programs were criticized by the American public in the mid-1950's as to the results achieved, studies continued to increase in remedial reading programs in American public schools. Finally, in the 1960's and the early 1970's, corrective programs in reading increased numerously as a result of federal funding for various remedial education programs.

Basically due to federal funding, and the dedicated reading researchers, remedial programs have increased and progressed tremendously the last three-fourths of a century. There is an ever increasing number of remedial programs throughout American school systems.

As the corrective reading programs increase, an abundance of researched material is compiled in articles, dissertations, and books to further improve ways of correcting reading deficiencies in American students.

"An analysis of a child's reading difficulties should precede instruction." (Betts, page 8) In general, remedial corrective reading programs are initiated by analyzation, such as examining reading books and supplementary reading materials for their readability levels. Then the reading students are analyzed by past achievement tests, reliable standardized tests, and a series of informal inventory check lists. An observation is then made of students as they read various readability level books, both silently and orally.

During the analyzation procedure, instructors are intersted generally in the results of standardized test scores, informal inventory results, and the observed behavior of remedial students. Finally, after careful analyzation and observation, each student is then placed at his or her flexible reading level.

With continued diagnosis and observation, thus the first step for correcting student deficiencies is initiated. General corrective procedures for remedial reading students are only a start; specific corrective procedures are then used effectively throughout the continuing corrective program.

One of the most recent corrective methods of teaching reading is with specially tape recorded books. (Carbo, page 60) This method is used with reading students who have memory problems, difficulty learning to read through phonics, and students who just plainly do not like reading. Remedial reading students' books are tape recorded and presented to individual or groups of students.

Research proved that students made fewer reading errors and formed better reading patterns after listening to specially tape recorded books. (Carbo) This method motivates the poor or non-reader to invest further in learning to read.

A good corrective procedure used to promote motivation in a remedial classroom is to vary teaching methods, consider individual needs, encourage and praise students, present new experiences, read books to students, and allow students to keep own progress charts. (Herr, pages 19-20)

Recently remedial reading teachers found that they needed new motivational methods to help disinterested reading students. The methods found to be successful were generous praise and encouragement, enjoyable and stimulating games, bright textbooks, pictures, use of individualized progress charts, and rewards of various sorts. (Sampson, page 39)

Another method of corrective reading is the Fernald Kinesthetic system. (Smith and Dechant, page 427) In this simple technique, the remedial student traces a written word with his finger, saying each part of the word as he or she does the tracing. The child continues this procedure until he or she can write the word without looking at it. The strong points of this method are, it teaches left-to-right direction in reading and the sound of the word is associated with the visual stimulus. (Smith and Dechant, page 428)

A similar corrective method to the preceding one, Initial Teaching Alphabet system, also helps students distinguish between the different sounds of the English language. This system was devised by Sir James Pitman. (DeYoung and Wynn, page 369)

The system consists of forty-four symbols, each with a distinctive single sound. This method eliminates the confusion of many sounds for the same letter, and different capital and lower case symbols for the same letter. Students who used this system appeared to have little difficulty later in mastering the twenty-six letters of the English language. (DeYoung and Wynn)

The lists of corrective methods used for teaching remedial students are endless, due to the rapid introduction of newer corrective methods to remedial reading programs in public schools. Most of the past and present corrective methods used by remedial reading teachers to aid the remedial student are effective.

However, the corrective methods used by remedial reading teachers should be varied because each individual student is as different as day and night. Remedial reading students should be patted on the backs for their progress, and they should be aided and given continued encouragement in their moments of weaknesses. Finally, corrective methods used to help remedial students should be flexible.

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EVALUATION

Schools exist for the purpose of educating children. Its programs are designed to help children achieve certain goals and objectives necessary to their becoming independent, self-actualizing individuals. One program, no matter how well designed, will not "fit" all children because all children do not possess the same abilities nor do they progress at the same rate. Within a third grade class, for example, there may be a range of reading abilities from 1.5 to 4.5. In an eighth grade class there is likely to be a range from 3.0 to 12.0 (Lapp, Flood, pp. 560-561). If educators lose sight of these differences and try to plan one program to fit all children at each grade level, they can be compared to the mythical character Procrustes, who having a bed of one size adapted his victims to fit the bed by either stretching them if they were shorter than the bed or amputating their legs if they were longer than the bed. Overplacing or underplacing children in an on-grade-level program is analogous. Those who are stretched to fit a program that is too difficult, according to Botel, experience a lack of success which leads to discouragement, loss of dignity or ego support, withdrawal, and often hostility. Those who are underplaced lack challenge and have their enthusiasm dampened (Botel, p. 284).

Unlike the bed, programs can be adapted. A program begins with clearly formulated instructional objectives. The objectives need not be adapted for the majority of children but the timeline and methods for achieving them often must be adapted to the individual needs and interests of the students.

Evaluation encompasses measurement of the child's present achievement and his ability to progress toward definite educational objectives. If he fails to make progress commensurate to his abilities a means for identifying the areas and causes of his failure is needed. Thus in evaluation the process proceeds from objectives, to measurement, to diagnosis. An effective program is built on a foundation of early diagnosis and careful evaluation of needs and abilities (Smith, pp. 407-408).

To adequately and effectively plan, the teacher must know the child's (1) reading level, (2) reading expectancy level, (3) mastery level of specific skills based on the objectives, (4) interests, (5) attitudes toward reading, and (6) mode of learning. Physical impediments (visual, auditory, speech, and/or motor) should be noted.

This information can be gathered from many sources: test results, teacher and parent observations, interest and attitude inventories, health records, and any other sources that provide a better understanding of the child.

Standardized or norm-referenced tests are used to obtain information. Norms for standardized tests are established by averaging the scores of the children given the initial form of the test. This is done within each grade level for which the test is designed. These norms are presented in a table so that the teacher can convert the raw score to a normed grade score or a percentile rank (Garland, p. 314).

Each test is accompanied by a manual which tells exactly how the test should be administered and scored. For the results to be valid and reliable, the directions must be followed exactly as given. If directions are not followed the norms will not be applicable because they were established with administrators following the directions exactly as given (Harris, Sipay, p. 161).

One standardized test score the teacher will need is the intelligence test score. There are two types: individual and group. The group tests are generally less valid than the individual test. If the child's reading development has been retarded, the group test will underestimate the child's general level of achievement. The individual test is less dependent upon his present level of reading achievement and will more accurately indicate his potential (Smith, 409). An individual intelligence test that is available to classroom teachers is the Slosson Intelligence Test.

Survey tests are another category of standardized tests. They provide a measure of the child's general reading ability. Usually, there are three subtests: vocabulary, comprehension, and speed or rate. The subtest scores should be taken into account. Two children may receive the same grade level designation on a total test score and thus appear to have the same abilities. An examination of the subtest scores may indicate that they, in fact, having the same grade level designation, do not have the same abilities. If one scores higher in vocabulary than in comprehension and the other child scores the reverse, then their abilities are not the same nor are their instructional needs the same.

A limitation pointed out by Garland and others is that the survey tests' scores tend to overestimate the general reading ability. This could result in overplacing the child. Dauzat, quoting Dallman, states that a "rough index" of the instructional level may be obtained by subtracting one year from the grade equivalency rating scored on the standardized reading survey test (Dauzat, p. 30).

Some survey reading tests that are used are: the California Reading Tests, the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests, the Metropolitan Reading Tests, and the Stanford Reading Tests.

Diagnostic tests are another category of standardized tests. They provide more information than does the survey tests. They have a greater number of subtests because they try to measure ability in specific skill areas. For example, the survey test measures general comprehension while the diagnostic test attempts to measure the different levels of comprehension. This results in a more specific identification of needs which provides for greater specificity in needs grouping (Garland, pp. 321-322).

Some group diagnostic tests which are available are: Bond-Balow-Hoyt New Developmental Reading Tests: Primary Reading; the Bond-Balow-Hoyt New Developmental Reading Tests: Intermediate Grades; the Bond-Balow- Hoyt Silent Reading Diagnostic Tests, Grades 2-6; the Dvorak-Van Wagenen Diagnostic Examination of Silent Reading Abilities, Grades 4-13; and the Ingraham-Clark Diagnostic Reading Tests, Grades 1-8 (Garland, p. 322).

Single skill area tests measure ability in only one area of reading. These are not all "standardized" in the sense that they are normed but they are in the sense that they have specific directions for administering and scoring which the examiner is to follow carefully if the results are to be valid (Garland, p. 322).

The following tests are designed to measure word recognition skills: the Botel Reading Inventory: Phonics Mastery Test, Grades 1-12; the Durkin-Meshover Phonics Knowledge Survey, any grade; the McCullough Word-Analysis Test, Grades 4-6; the Roswell-Chall Diagnostic Reading Test (Garland, p. 322-323); the 220 Dolch Basic Sight Word Test; and the Slosson Oral Reading Test.

Two tests to evaluate oral reading are: the Gilmore Oral Reading Tests, New Edition, Grades 1-8 and the Gray Oral Reading Tests, Grades 1-12.

The cloze procedure used as a tool to determine the readability of a textbook can be used to test comprehension. Dauzat, quoting Miller, gives the following method for computing an average comprehension level for the cloze test:

1. Divide the number of words exactly replaced by the total number of blanks.
2. Multiply this figure by 1.67 to determine the average comprehension (Dauzat, p. 31).

A level of 90% or above would indicate an independent level, 75 to 89% would indicate the instructional level and below 75% the frustration level (Dauzat, pp. 30-31).

The informal reading inventory (IRI) will give three reading levels: the independent, the instructional and the frustration level. Harris and Sipay describe these levels:

> The independent reading level is the highest level at which a child can read easily and fluently: without assistance, with few word-recognition errors, and with good comprehension and recall. The instructional level is the highest level at which the child can do satisfactory reading provided that he receives preparation and supervision from a teacher: word-recognition errors are not frequent, and comprehension and recall are satisfactory. The frustration level is the lowest level at which the child's reading skills break down: fluency disappears, word-recognition errors are numerous, comprehension is faulty, recall is sketchy, and signs of emotional tension and discomfort become evident (Harris, Sipay, p. 167).

The limits of the three reading levels are:

Levels	Performance in Context * Oral Fluency	Silent Comprehension
Independent	99-100%	95-100%
Instructional	95-98%	75-94%
Frustration or Overplaced	less than 95%	less than 75%

*(Botel, p. 284)

Informal reading inventories can be purchased. Basal textbook publishers often publish an informal reading inventory to accompany their programs. Three published oral reading inventories named by Harris and Sipay are: Robert A. McCracken's Standard Reading Inventory, Nicholas J. Silvaroli's Classroom Reading Inventory, and Floyd Sucher's and Ruel Allred's Reading Placement Inventory (Harris, Sipay, p. 211).

The classroom teacher should know how to design, administer, and score an informal reading inventory. Two books that offer direction to the teacher in this area are:

Potter, Thomas C., and Gwenneth Rae. Informal Reading Diagnosis. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1973.

Johnson, Marjorie S., and Roy A. Kress. Informal Reading Inventories. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1965.

Students of the same chronological grade placement level have a wide range of achievement or actual reading levels which can be determined using the survey test and informal reading inventory. To make judgments about the child's reading progress it is necessary to estimate the level at which he can be expected to read. The reading expectancy level (REL) "is an estimate of the level at which he can be expected to read based on his potential or capacity for learning (Garland, p. 325)." To determine if the child's progress is satisfactory, one would compare his actual reading level to his reading expectancy level. Garland quotes Bond and Tinker's guidelines for using the reading expectancy level to identify children with serious difficulties.

> . . .In the first grade. . .one-half year is a sufficiently large difference between reading expectancy and reading achievement to indicate a serious problem. Even children who are three-tenths of a year lower in reading achievement than we would expect them to be are considered seriously enough retarded to be studied further as having a possible disability. At grade five, the difference must be at least one and one-half years to be classified as a disability and nine-tenths of a year to one and one-half years to indicate a

possible disability if supported by other evidence (Garland, p. 325).

One of the following formulas may be used to compute the reading expectancy level:

Harris-Sipay Formula *

$$\text{Reading Expectancy Level (REL)} = \frac{2\ MA + CA}{3} - 5.2$$

Bond-Tinker Formula *

$$\text{Reading Expectancy Level (REL)} = \frac{IQ}{100} \times \text{years in school} + 1.0$$

*(Garland, p. 326)

To plan appropriate daily instruction, the teacher will need more data than that collected through use of the instruments discussed. There is a wide range of nonstandardized techniques that can be used to assess progress toward the reading programs's objectives. Two common tests used are tests published by the basal program publishers and those made by the teacher. These tests are often criterion-referenced tests. Criterion-referenced tests are tests designed to measure achievement of the stated objectives. If the student's test performance indicates mastery of the skill, he is ready to be instructed in subsequent skills. If his test performance indicates that he has not achieved mastery of a skill then reteaching of the skill is necessary (Garland, p. 329).

Other techniques teachers use in an on-going evaluation are: basal reading workbooks, teacher-developed activities, teacher observations, checklists, and individual conferences.

The gathering and interpretation of data does not complete the evaluation cycle. Evaluation must result in decisions about the child's instructional needs: a course of action must be decided. Since these decisions are so very important, they should be based on evidence

gathered from as many sources as possible. This data,tempered by the teacher's judgment,then becomes the foundation for the instructional plan.

Because children are growing, developing, and changing individuals, there needs to be a continuous evaluation to keep in touch with their needs and to later their programs accordingly.

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ADULT BASIC READING

Reading must be a life-long tool for personal enjoyment and worthwhile leisure activities (Taschow, 1977).. A program of life-long continuing education should be made accessible to all individuals (Peppers, 2691A).. Twenty percent of adult Americans and 13% of 17 year olds in school were found to be functionally illiterate in recent national studies. A sense of failure, low self-esteem as learners, and other personal and social problems combine to make this a difficult group for reading remediation (Schneiderman, 195-202). Literacy is one of the most important problems to be dealt with on the topic of adult basic reading. Library and reading habits studies have been conducted in following the topic of adult basic reading. "Without reading you ain't nothing. You just another human being walking around this earth being wasted" (Schneiderman, 16-18)..

Literacy, as defined, is the need to stress an individual's ability to cope with activities encountered in daily living (James, 1978).. There are many approaches utilized in curbing adult illiteracy. Rauch utilized a special tool for a special adult group comprised of low-income, adult males who belonged in a men's Bible class who could not read. There were six factors that had to be dealt with in choosing an approach for teaching the men to read. They were (1) early success had to be achieved, (2) knowledge of expectations at

each step. (3) encouragement of active participation, (4) ownership of books, (5) interest in the reading materials, and (6) large page print with generous margins. The special tool that fit the above criteria was hard-core pornography. All the men learned to read (Rauch, 390-92).

Nonlinguistic decoding skills are not the prerequisites for reading. Proficient readers only incidentally employ nonlinguistic skills; and one cannot predict that a person who has mastered nonlinguistic skills will be a proficient reader. Reading, at the physiological level, can be facilitated by eye training calisthenics. The relevance of language structure is apparent. Exercises that encourage syntactic anticipation complement ocular conditioning, and are part of an effective paradigm for patterning, an alternative method of teaching reading to adolescents and adults (Giordano, 13-19).

Hutchison's study determined whether lessons designed to emphasize preferred interests improved functionally illiterate adults' silent reading information recall skills and interpretation of word meanings from context during a fifteen week instructional period. There was a significant reading comprehension increase for those who were instructed according to their preferred interests. Greater attention should be devoted to the utilization of the interest concept in teaching reading (Hutchison, 203-07).

Bazemore reported that cable television could be

implemented as an educational resource tool in teaching reading to people at home (Bazemore, 518-24)..

Reading materials which apply to everyday life are interesting for students of all ages, but they are especially useful for teaching underachieving adults who need immediate and practical application of reading skills. At the adult level, inmates in a jail selected their own reading materials,. often magazines and paperbacks donated by the community (Manning,. 721-24)..

Schneiderman, director of the Ohio State University Right-to-Read program, reported on the system used to combat adult illiteracy. The system developed is the Active Reading Techniques System (ARTS) and consists of five techniques, each of which deals with a crucial part of the reading process. They are (1) Language Experience Technique,. (2) Information Reading Technique, (3) Life-Skills Technique, (4) Context Clues Technique, and (5) Silent Reading Technique (Schneiderman, 16-18)..

Using mnemonics to improve adult reading was advocated by Giordano. Mindset is the technique utilized for this process. Mindset is to efficiently retrieve items from long term memory and to have access to the items. In order to develop a mindset, thought has to be given about what is to be read before it is read and looking at the pictures which may accompany an article.. If people have a purpose for remembering something, the probability that they will remember that thing increases in proportion with their motivating purpose..

Mindset is ideally suited to adult learning. As persons age, they complain that they can no longer recall information which they could easily retrieve earlier. Mindset emphasizes the continuously changing organization of memory by requiring persons to place items in areas which are accessible at the present moment. Mindset can be the bridge to reading comprehension (Giordano, 26-30).

Singh proposed a comprehensive system of literacy instruction which involved two stages--learning to read and reading to learn. Teaching materials should be built around a theme of interest to adults (Singh, 1976).

Penal institutions have basically two philosophies of treatment. They are punishment and rehabilitation. Reading programs have found basis in rehabilitation. Many inmates are educationally bankrupt, having followed the tragic triad of reading retardation--truancy--delinquency. Inmates should receive reading instruction under conditions that make success not only possible but probable. The need for books with specific high interest and low vocabulary is great (Kilty, 1977).

Studies have been conducted to ascertain the involvement of public libraries with adult education programs, particularly reading. One finding was the major emphasis of library adult educational endeavors in leisure time, home, and family concern reading (Anderson, 7032A).

In probing the adult basic reading, the reading habits of adults should be considered. In one particular study, book borrowing was found to be uncommon among Iranian males in the city of Shiraz, a city of 400,000 in southwestern Iran. While extent of book reading was positively related to extent of education, persons with advanced college degrees appeared to regress toward the degree of reading observed among mere high school graduates. Teachers reported the most book reading, company engineers indicated an intermediate level, and bankers and shop owners evidenced the least amount. Newspaper reading appeared to be related to occupational role (Deckert, 7407A).

Holmes conducted a survey to determine the reading habits of adults in Orem, Utah. The main purpose of reading was recreational among the males and females sampled. The frequent source of reading material was the bookstore. The favorite type of book was fiction (Holmes, 1977).

Adult basic reading is often overlooked in the aspects of reading. Children, of course, should be taught to read, but adults need to continue to read. One recommendation for continuing adult reading is to keep high interest materials available. Always continue self-improvement in reading.

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IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

"In-service education" is one of the major tasks in the supervision of teaching. A task that, "...

> includes planned and organized effort to improve the knowledge, skill and attitudes of instructional staff members to make them more effective on the job". (Good, p. 294)

There are two major types of in-service programs, each determined by their length of time. Short-term programs are best used when informing a large group about a new concept or idea. Usually one topic is concentrated on. Examples of short-term programs are: seminars, workshops, lectures, conferences, staff meetings, visits and demonstrations. When the aim of in-service is to modify an individual's method of teaching, a long-range effort is called for. Examples of long-term programs are: college courses or classes, school-year workshops and study groups. Other forms of in-service education are the continuous research and curriculum revisions being made and the consultant services available.

The problem with in-service education is qualitative as well as quantitative. Many teachers believe their in-service experiences to be of little value. In education, where creativity is desirable, demonstrations are avoided for fear they will stimulate imitation. Often more direct help is needed than verbal advice and recom-

mendations. Teachers need more than desire, they need the "know-how". (Gans, p. 226) Other criticisms of current in-service programs are listed below:

1. There is a lack of conceptual framework.
2. Teachers don't play a large enough role.
3. No credit is given for most in-service activities.
4. Overloading, no time off from teaching duties.
5. Sometimes administrators want to see the results of training immediately.
6. Careful evaluations of programs are rarely undertaken.
7. There is a lack of financial support for effective collaboration to develop.

It would seem that in-service education programs have acquired an image of being inadequate and irrelevant. What warrants their continuation? The achievement and maintenance of an adequate supply of good teachers who are constantly growing professionally is the purpose of in-service teacher education. (Purdy and Finch, p. 907) To meet this need, in-service can:

1. Expand upon the knowledge acquired in the preservice preparation of professional staff members.
2. Help new teachers adjust to the classroom.
3. Teach new ways of working at old problems and better ways of meeting new responsibilities.
4. Help keep professional practices, tools, knowledge and attitudes current.
5. Help teachers and administrators in selecting materials and equipment for use in reading programs.

6. Help teachers translate the results of research studies for use in the classroom.

7. Help teachers and administrators to communicate with each other.

8. Uplift morale, motivate, inspire, effectively stimulate lagging enthusiasm, and generate new and vital ideas.

A survey was taken of studies done in the area of in-service education. These studies are summarized below.

A paper presented by Nist (1977) describes certain aspects of in-service education in England. There the Central Government does not actually run the schools, hire the teachers or specify curricula but, it does have the responsibility of: setting minimum standards, financially supporting a limited number of institutions of a specific kind, controlling the training, supply and distribution of teachers, and determining certification requirements. When changes are made, they are made for all. A strong in-service program is needed. Out of dissatisfaction with the old way of in-service came the English teaching center, a flexible and relaxed place where teachers can discuss issues and exchange ideas and teaching practices. Most centers consist of from 3 to 7 rooms and include a workroom, discussion room, refreshment room, a room with reproduction facilities and a professional library. In 1972 there were 517 such centers. Thus, the change in England has been from externally devised course-structure study to the teachers themselves exploring all areas of their work.

Howey (1978) tells of a study of the perceptions of in-service education held by teachers, professors, and parents. The study was conducted in Michigan, Georgia, and California in both the urban and rural communities. There was unanimous agreement by the three groups that there is not enough in-service currently provided to teachers. It seems the qualitative problem is as serious as the quantitative problem with the majority of teachers feeling in-service education was "only somewhat" or "not very effective". On providing innovative content, the professors found college courses as best, and the teachers found district workshops and interaction with peers the best. On providing in-service, the professors thought professors the most effective instructors, and teachers thought teachers the same. Both found district supervisors and consultants less effective and principals least effective. Though teachers thought peers the best instructors, the majority indicated no desire to instruct others. Another finding, concerning strategies to institute in-service was made. Teachers and professors felt time off from teaching duties or pay was appropriate. Parents were less positive on this but nevertheless supportive.

Griffin (1978) conducted a study to evaluate the effects of a short-term, school-based teacher improvement workshop. The results of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire, a Workshop Evaluation semantic

differential instrument, and a Post-Workshop Exam were used to check for cognitive knowledge of workshop objectives, compare the variables of attitude towards teaching roles and conditions, compare participant personality type indicators and individual subject evaluation of concepts concerning the workshop. Of the 115 teachers involved in this study, 56 served as the control group. The following conclusions were reached: 1) there was a consistently high rating evaluation of all workshop concepts, 2) locally based in-service was shown preferable to university-based training, 3) attitude toward teaching roles was strongly correlated with attitude towards in-service training, 4) increases in cognitive knowledge after participation are significant, and 5) in-service training had positive benefits for those who participated.

The next five studies to be reviewed have attempted to determine the need for in-service education in reading, the type of in-service programs preferred by teachers, the content of such programs and the role of the reading specialist as an in-service leader. In all five cases, data was gathered primarily through questionnaires which requested respondents to identify needs or problems.

A nationwide survey conducted by Austin and Morrison (1963) dealt with the means by which school systems have attempted to increase teacher knowledge and improve teacher performance in reading instruction. The investigators con-

cluded that vast improvements in the conduct and content of in-service education programs in reading were urgently needed. They recommended that a continuous year-to-year in-service program contain the following provisions: release time be provided for the teachers, teachers be involved in the planning and actively participate in the program and audiovisual aids be used to develop theoretical concepts in a more realistic setting.

Adam echoed Austin and Morrison's recommendation concerning the active participation of teachers in determining the content of in-service programs. Adam's study attempted to analyze teacher responses to a questionnaire designed to present a comprehensive statement of teacher's instructional needs in reading. The questionnaire consisted of multiple-choice, agree-disagree, and four point value items organized into six major categories: 1) nature of the reading program; 2) readiness and motivation; 3) individualization and ways of working; 4) teaching the reading skills; 5) materials and resources; and 6) evaluation. The respondents identified 20 aspects of reading instruction as areas in which greater understanding was needed. The area of greatest need occurred in the diagnosis and treatment of corrective or remedial reading problems and in ways of meeting individual differences. Areas of least concern were the library, grouping, and ways to attack new words. (Adam, p. 262) The study provided a

means for selecting topics for in-service meetings, but the responses of teachers from all six grades were included in the analysis of data. It would have been more helpful to learn the greatest needs felt by the primary and intermediate teachers separately.

Smith, Otto, and Harty surveyed 225 elementary teachers in an attempt to discover guidelines for improving preservice and in-service training of teachers in reading. Responses to their four item questionnaire were classified on the basis of each respondent's present teaching (primary or intermediate) and years of service as a teacher. They found that primary teachers were more satisfied with their preservice training than were the intermediate teachers. Both groups felt the need for more information about providing for the disabled reader and diagnosing individual instructional needs. Beginning teachers expressed the need for individual conferences with a reading specialist while teachers with two or more years of experience were more interested in non-credit classes for teachers of a selected grade level. (Smith, Otto, and Harty, p. 447)

Wylie (1969) administered a four item questionnaire to 70 classroom teachers and 84 reading consultants to determine how teachers and consultants view the role of the elementary school reading consultant. Teachers felt the reading consultant to be more effective when providing aid through personalized, informal small group activities. Con-

sultants, on the other hand, favored methods which allowed them to work with greater numbers of teachers. Teachers felt it important for a reading consultant to have a good working knowledge of reading, to criticize constructively, and to treat all alike.

Another important investigation on the effects of an intensive program was done by Heilman (1966). The study sought to determine whether a long-term intensive program of in-service education could develop a positive climate for professional growth among first-grade teachers. An analysis of the teacher evaluation forms revealed that the fourteen teachers involved listed 86 changes in teaching procedures, 97 modifications of concepts relating to reading instruction, and the reading of 271 professional books and journal articles. The weekly evaluations revealed the teacher's inability to assimilate all of the new concepts and techniques provided through the in-service meetings. The study did not result in significantly higher reading achievement for the students of the experimental teachers but, that the differences in scores did favor these students in nine out of ten cases. However, Heilman reports and discusses his data as though significant differences actually did appear.

The list of in-service reading is long and varied. The last studies take a retrospective look at in-service reading programs by the student, teacher, and principal.

Thomas J. Sabariena developed a program that would affect students in such a way that their reading growth during fifth and sixth grades would be equal to or greater than their reading growth during previous years. The systems and prescriptive approaches were used. The study included fifth and sixth grade students and faculty, a full-time reading specialist to coordinate a follow through of teachers and volunteers, and a full-time coordinator of reading. This study revealed that:

1. A systems approach for evaluation of a reading program maximizes the involvement of staff in shaping curriculum.

2. A systems approach requires an alteration in administrative style of managing the school.

3. Community input in decisions concerning curriculum can be constructive and supportive.

4. Student attitudes toward reading can be measured objectively, and in this program reflected an overall gain.

5. Students' specific skill weaknesses were 99 percent corrected during the pre-test/instruct/post-test program.

6. The prescriptive program resulted in students' ratio of learning during 1974-75, being equal to or greater than their ratio of learning for previous school years.

7. Teacher participation in the systems approach resulted in positive modification of their values concerning: a) needs assessment, b) decision making, c) diagnosis, d) volunteers, e) performance objectives, f) student self-evaluation, g) in-school in-service, and h) the prescriptive program.

(Sabariena, p. 10)

The key to the success of a school and any program within the school is the principal. Wayne Otto and Lawrence Erickson, in an International Reading Association publication of 1973, write, "...

> the principal's responsibility for the reading program entails knowledge of what constitutes an effective reading program; it includes the ability to provide competent supervision; and it implies that the principal has more than a superficial knowledge of the skills to be taught, the sequence from level to level, the ways which teachers can diagnose and adjust individual differences, and the effectiveness of the total program." (Otto and Erickson, p. 19)

After reviewing the research related to in-service development, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. Induction, orientation, and in-service development processes should be personalized. All teachers do not require the same types of assistance. Teachers must be treated as individuals just as teachers are expected to recognize pupil differences.

2. Any in-service development program should be based on the goals of the school.

3. An in-service program should be continuous and continuously re-evaluated.

4. New teaching materials must be made readily available and in sufficient quantities.

5. In-service programs must meet the current needs of the teacher.

6. Research be conducted which assesses the needs of teachers.

7. Research efforts in in-service education be expanded to include problems and programs in reading at the secondary level.

8. Future research should extend the in-service program over longer periods of time (such as regular sessions throughout one or two school years).

9. Provide periodic follow-up on teachers who have participated in in-service programs to determine the carry over of skills initially gained through the program.

When planning an in-service program these factors should be taken into consideration:

1. The personal desire to improve oneself professionally is the real incentive in in-service. Try to cultivate this attitude in the participants.

2. Assess the local situation as to current needs and involve participants in the decision-making and planning.

3. Set your goals - immediate and long-term.

4. Plan to include a variety of activities and involve the teachers in active participation.

5. Try to use local talent. A consultant from across the country may be no more effective than one in your own "backyard".

6. Try to offer financial assistance or time off from teaching duties to encourage participation.

7. Evaluate periodically and work to make in-service more effective.

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IRA EDWARD AARON

Ira Edward Aaron was born the son of Thomas and Sallie (Lane) Aaron on July 9, 1919 in Jenkins County, Georgia.

Aaron attended the University of Georgia where he received his A.B.J. in 1941. Upon graduation, he was employed by the Jenkins County School Board as a math and English teacher. From 1942 to 1946, Aaron served his country in the United States Air Force. When he returned from the war, he became principal of Norwood Jr. High School in Millen. Concurrently he continued his education at the Univ. of Ga. receiving his M.Ed. in 1947.

Then Aaron began his professorship at the Univ. of Ga. taking off only to attain his Ph.D. from the Univ. of Minnesota in 1954. Dr. Aaron climbed from Assistant to Associate to Full Professor and then on to his current title of Distinguished Professor. His responsibilities there have included directing the Bureau of Educational Studies and Field Services to heading the Department of Reading for sixteen years.

Dr. Aaron lists membership in the American Psychological Association, the American Educational Research Association, the National Council on Measurement in Education, N.E.A., G.E.A., the International Reading Association, and others. His professional interests include research in learning and the teaching of reading and spelling skills. His Ph.D. Dissertation was a study on the Relationship of Auditory-Visual Discrimination to Spelling Ability.

On July 22, 1979, this writer placed a call to Dr. Aaron in order to ask questions that might put the personal touch on his biographical sketch. He gladly agreed to answer the following:

1. What most influenced your decision for a career in education? "Probably it was some actual teaching experience I had in my junior and senior years of college. I was majoring in journalism and the thought of teaching appealed to me more than the thought of writing for a newspaper."

2. Are you married? "No."

3. What are some of the publications you have authored? "Phonics Survey for Teacher Education," some pamphlets on word recognition skills and developing comprehension skills, which are mainly used in Georgia. I've co-authored some IRA publications like Conducting In-Service Programs in Reading, and I've helped in the development of the Scott, Foresman basal series."

4. What have you accomplished in your professional career that you are the most proud of? "I never really look back. When I finish one project, I'm ready to move on to something new."

5. Please give a general statement on education today. "I'm mainly interested in reading, so I'll narrow it to that. I feel the teachers of today are as good as ever. It is hard for them to show improvement - there is no good evaluating pattern. Our two greatest needs in education are in the improvement of our methods of evaluation and public relations."

Leaders in Education, Who's Who in American Education, and telephone conversation of July 22, 1979.

DR. ROACH VAN ALLEN

Dr. Roach Van Allen, Professor of Elementary Education at the University of Arizona, received his Ed.D.. at the University of Texas. He has written more than 100 articles and bulletins in the fields of reading instruction.. Some of his books are: Language Experiences in Early Childhood, Language Experiences in Reading, Learning to Read Through Experience, and Independent Activities for Creative Learning. In addition, Dr. Allen is widely known as a consultant and speaker, dealing especially with a language-experience approach in reading, open education concepts,. creative self-expression, and classroom organization. Dr. Allen has co-authored works with his wife, Claryce.. Dr.. Allen was born in Lockney, Texas on September 24, 1919.. Lynda,. Larry,. and Elva are the Allen children..

MILDRED HART BAILEY

Mildred Hart Bailey, Professor of Education and Director of the Reading Center at Northwestern State University since 1963, was born in Natchitoches, Louisiana, March 29, 1926. She received a B.S. and M.A. from Northwestern State University in 1950 and 1960 respectively. She received an Ed.D. in Elementary Education from the University of Mississippi in 1965.

Dr. Bailey was an elementary school teacher from 1958 to 1962. She was Assistant Professor of Elementary Education at the University of Mississippi from 1962 to 1963. She acted as a supervising teacher in 1961-62, and she was Visiting Professor of Reading at Syracuse University in the summer of 1966. She has been a director for ERIC/CRIER Reading Resources Center since 1969.

Dr. Bailey holds memberships in the National Reading Conference, College Reading Association, National Council of Teachers of English, International Reading Association, and Phi Kappa Phi. Her professional interest lies in the area of teaching reading. Her publications include "Utility of Phonic Generalizations in Grades One Through Six," in Reading Teacher, February 1967 and "Utility of Vowel Digraph Generalizations," in Reading and Realism, International Reading Association, 1969.

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Emmett Albert Betts

Emmett Albert Betts was born February 1, 1903, Elkhart, Iowa, to Albert Henry and Grace L. (Greenwood) Betts. He married May 24, 1924, to Thelma Marshall; later married July 15, 1950, to Carolyn Welch. They had three children.

He received the B.S. degree (1925) from Des Moines (Iowa) University and the M.S. (1928) and Ph.D. (1931) degrees from the University of Iowa.

His professional experience began as a school vocational director in Orient, Iowa (1922-24). He was a school psychologist and elementary principal in Shaker Heights, Ohio (1925-29), and served at the State Teachers College (later, State University of New York (1934-37), where he was director of the reading clinic (1937-45) and moved to Temple University in Philadephia, Pennsylvania, where he was professor of psychology and director of the reading clinic (1945-54). In 1954 he opened the Betts Reading Clinic in Haverfore, Pennsylvania, which he directed until 1961, when he moved to the University of Miami in Coral Gables, Florida, as research professor of education and lecturer in psychology.

Betts was a member of the summer faculty or a participant in workshops dealing with vision and reading at more than forty colleges and universities. He served as a consultant to public schools throughout the United States and to the Air University, and other educational groups.

Among Betts's books were Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties (with Mable O'Donnell, 1936), Visual Problems of School Children (1941), Index to Professional Publications on Reading and Related Topics (1944), Foundations of Reading Instruction (1946) considered a classic in the field of reading textbooks, and How to Teach Reading (1963).

He coauthored reading, spelling, and language arts textbooks, and served in editorial roles for a number of periodicals, instructional materials, and reference works. He published more than five hundred works, including more than three hundred articles in professional journals on reading and vision. He served as editor to a number of journals, including Highlights for Children and Education (1948-69), was contributing editor to My Weekly Reader (1938-69), Journal of Experimental Education, and Reading Teacher, and was on the editorial board of Reading Improvement and the editorial advisory committee of annual Progress in Reading.

He was active in over twenty professional organizations and assumed leadership roles and held various offices in many of them. He was the founder of the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Association.

Throughout his career Betts championed the cause of reading instruction based on the reading levels and needs of children as opposed to a static curriculum.

His procedures and criteria for determining reading levels and needs through informal reading inventories have been widely accepted by reading specialists. He pioneered visual screening procedures that were used in clinics and schools. He was the recipient of honors, including the Apollo Award of the American Optometric Association (1962), Citation of Merit and Founders Award of the International Reading Association (1971). and the Gold Medal Award of Education (1971).

Jacques Cattell Press, ed. 1974. Leaders in Education. New York: R.R. Bowker Co. p. 47.

EMMETT BETTS
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MEMBERSHIP:

International Reading Association (formerly International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction), Founder; National Council on Aviation Education (member of the Board of Directors and Vice-President); National Conference on Research in English, Simpler Spelling Association (member of the Board of Directors, 1966-71; President, 1967-71).

AWARDS AND HONORS:

Apollo Award, American Optometric Association, 1962; Citation of Merit and Founders Award, International Reading Association, 1971; Gold Medal Award: Education, 1971; certificate of Meritorious Achievement in Clinical Psychology, 1971; Certificate for Aerospace Education

Leadership, National Aerospace Education Council, 1971; L.L.D., Sioux Falls College, 1972; Melvil Dewey Centennial Gold Medal, Phonemic Spelling Council, 1977; and other awards for education leadership and achievement.

WRITINGS:

Prevention and Correction of Reading Difficulties, Row, Peterson, 1936; (withMabel O'Donnell) Here We Go: A Diagnostic Reading Readiness Book, Row, Peterson, 1938, 3rd revised edition, 1955; The Initial Stages of Reading Readiness, Row, Peterson, 1939; Spelling Vocabulary Study: Grade Placement of Words in Seventeen Spellers, American Book Co., 1940; (with Thelma M. Betts) An Index to Professional Literature on Reading and Related Topics, American Book Co., 1945; Foundations of Reading Instruction, American Book Co., 1946, 4th revised edition, 1957; Second Spelling Vocabulary Study: Grade Placement of Words in Eight Recent Spellers, American Book Co., 1949.

Contemporary Authors.

DONALD L. CLELAND

Donald L. Cleland was born June 1, 1903. He did his undergraduate studies at Westminister College in Pennsylvania and completed his doctorial work at the University of Pittsburgh. His dissertation was written on tachistascope training for college students. Dr. Cleland became Director of the Reading Center at the University of Pittsburgh.

Many interesting articles have been written by Dr. Cleland for the professional journals. He is also a very warm and enthusiastic speaker from my impression of listening to a tape recording of his speech, "Right to Read", given at the University of Memphis, 1970. He addressed the 1968 Reading Conference at the University of Pittsburgh speaking on the "Nature of the Reading Process".

Dr. Cleland has an outstanding professional background in the field of education, particularly reading. He is a past-president of Keystone, the Pennsylvania State organization of the International Reading Association and has served as president of the I. R. A. in 1970. Dr. Cleland's interest in "Right to Read" strongly influenced the 1971 I. R. A. convention theme "... that all may read".

At the age of seventy-six, Dr. Cleland still remains active in his enthusiasm for progress in education as a board member of the I. R. A. Presently Dr. Cleland is semi-retired and is Professor Emeritus at the University of Ohio.

"The Reading Teacher", November, 1971.
Interview - Harry B. Miller, NLU, July, 1979.

WILLIAM K. DURR

William K. Durr has had extensive experience in education at both the elementary and university levels. Currently, Dr. Durr is Professor of Education at Michigan State University. Prior to this, he was Elementary Superintendent of Schools in St. Joseph, Illinois, and an elementary teacher in Indianapolis, Indiana. Dr. Durr is co-author of the 1966 edition of Reading for Meaning series and author of The Gifted Student and Reading Instruction: Dimensions and Issues. He is the senior author of the Houghton Mifflin Readers and Reading Skills Lab and has edited two books for the International Reading Association. He is a former member of the Board and a past-president of the International Reading Association. Dr. Durr has served as a speaker and consultant both on the national and international levels.

Leaders in Education. New York: New York, Bowker 1974.

ROGER C. FARR

EDUCATION: State University of New York College at Brockport, B.S., 1961; State University of New York College at Buffalo, M.S., 1965; State University of New York at Buffalo, Ed.D., 1967.

OFFICE: Reading Clinic, University Schools, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. 47405.

CAREER: Junior and senior high school English teacher, Akron, Ohio, 1957-64; State University of New York at Buffalo, instructor in educational psychology, 1966-67; Indiana University at Bloomington, assistant professor, 1967-70, associate professor of education, 1970--, director of Reading Clinic, 1968--.

MEMBER: International Reading Association (president), National Council on Measurement in Education, American Educational Research Association, National Reading Conference, National Conference on Research in English, Phi Delta Kappa.

WRITINGS: (With Edward G. Summers) Guide to Tests and Measuring Instruments for Reading, Indiana University, 1968; (contributor) G. B. Schick and M. M. May, editors, Multidisciplinary Aspects of College-Adult Reading, National Reading Conference, 1968; (with James Laffey and Carl Smith) A Taxonomy of Evaluation Techniques for Reading Programs, Indiana University for U. S. Office of Education, 1968; (with Nicholas Anastasiow) Tests of Reading Readiness and Achievement: A Review and Evaluation, International Reading Association, 1969; (editor) Measurement and Evaluation of Reading, Harcourt, 1970; Reading: What Can Be Measured?, International Reading Association, 1970; (contributor) Schick and May, editors, Reading: Process and Pedagogy, National Reading Conference, 1970; (with Laffey) What Research Says to the Teacher of Reading: Reading in

the High School, National Education Association, 1970; Grade Levels and Test Scores: What Do They Mean?, National Reading Center, 1971; (compiler) Measurement of Reading Achievement, International Reading Association, 1971. Associate editor, Reading Research Quarterly, 1968-69; co-editor, Indiana Reading Quarterly, 1968-69.

WORK IN PROGRESS: Editing with William Blanton and J. Jaap Tuinman, Reading Tests for the Secondary Grades: A Review and Evaluation, for International Reading Association; a section for a book on college-adult reading, for National Reading Conference; a section for a book of readings for International Reading Association.

Evory, Ann. ed. Contemporary Authors. Vols. 33-38. Detroit: Gale Research Company, 1978.

ALBERT JOSEPH MAZURKIEWICZ

Albert Joseph Mazurkiewicz of the Department of Communication Science of Kean College in New Jersey, was born March 1, 1926. He served in the armed forces from 1944 to 1946. In 1953 he married the former Helen Virginia Lipsett of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Mazurkiewicz graduated with a B.A. degree from Ursinus College in 1950. By 1951 he had obtained the M.A. degree at the University of Pennsylvania. Later he obtained his Ed.D. degree from Temple University in 1957. His dissertation, An Investigation of the Nature of Reading Comprehension of Fifth Grade Children as Evaluated by an Unaided-Recall Reading Test, proposed "to investigate the relationship between reading comprehension and reading ability in order to understand better the nature of reading comprehension."

He began his career as an educator in 1950 as teacher of English and science to tenth and eleventh graders in the Philadelphia school system. The next year was spent as the director of the reading clinic at Valley Forge Military Academy. Mazurkiewicz returned to the Philadelphia school system as a fourth grade teacher in 1952. From 1953 to 1955, he served as Room Supervisor of the Reading Clinic Laboratory School and Psychology Department at Temple University and from 1955 to 1966, he was Director of Reading and Study Clinic at Lehigh University. In 1966 he became chairman of the Department of Education of Newark State

College. At Kean College he has served as Chairman of the Department of Education, Professor of Graduate Education, and Chairman of the Department of Communication Science.

He has co-authored and authored many educational series such as the Initial Teaching Alphabet Series. Mazurkiewicz has for much of his educational career concentrated his efforts in the field of reading.

Dissertation Abstracts International
Leaders in Education
National Faculty Directory
Who's Who in American Education

MARIA MONTESSORI

Born in 1870, Maria Montessori was an Italian physician and educator who created a unique method of instructing youngsters. Her method of instruction has been widely received the world over and her schools of instruction are virtually everywhere. Although her ideas have received some criticism, Montessori has allies as well who profess to the effectiveness and validity of her method.

Being the first woman in Italy to graduate in medicine, she displayed an interest in children and the learning process in 1898 when Rome's minister of education selected her to give in-service training to Roman teachers of the retarded. She taught many retarded children how to read and write well enough to pass exams given to "normal" children. Her work with normal children began essentially on January 6, 1907, when she opened her first class, Casa Dei Bambini (Children's House), in Rome. In 1913 she made her first visit to the U.S. meeting notables including Helen Keller and Thomas Edison. Lecturing and writing numerous books, pamphlets, and articles, she was president of the Association Montessori Internationale until 1952 at the time of her death.

The crux of the Montessori Method is the child who serves as a self-activated learner in an environment of programmed materials. Encouraging individual creativity and sensitivity, she offers her students opportunities to grow through motor, sensory, and intellectual exercises as he learns. She believed in a series of learning games which included materials made of wood, metal, cloth, tagboard, and sandpaper. Through these materials the child learns color, size, weight, texture, sound, and shape. In this basically ungraded situation, the child works alone or in small groups, and the younger children learn a large amount from the older five and six year olds serving as teachers. She professed that the best teachers for children are indeed children, and she utilized this belief in her schools. Introducing child-sized furniture, she believed that the kids should clean and arrange the room themselves while other household duties are likewise tended. "Life exercises" such as grooming, cleaning, walking, and breathing are emphasized, and strong sensory training goes hand in hand with her instruction.

Although Montessori's ideas have sometimes been attacked, no one can totally deny that many of her points are valid if utilized correctly.

The Encyclopedia of Education. Lee C. Deighton (ed.), New York: Macmillan, 1971. Volume 6, p. 388-392.

OMAR KHAYYAM MOORE

O. K. Moore was born February 11, 1920. He married Ruth Garnand, and became the father of one daughter. He received his M. A. and Ph. D. degrees in Sociology from Washington University.

In an effort to prove that the years from 2 to 5 are the most creative, Moore demonstrated that children are capable of extraordinary feats of inductive reasoning if left to themselves.

While at the University of Pittsburgh, Moore used a typewriter with jumbo-size type that automatically pronounced the sounds of the letters which the child typed. As a new letter popped up, the child faced the exciting task of finding the key that printed the letter. When the child found the new letter key, the sound of the new letter was given, and thus the child learned phonics and touch-typing without much effort.

Since children liked the adventure of self-discovery so well, Moore developed new and creative means of helping children play an active role in discovering knowledge for themselves.

SOURCE

DeYoung, Chris A. and Wynn, Richard. American Education. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.

OLIVE S. NILES

NILES, OLIVE STAFFORD, b. Bennington, Vt, July 12, 09. A.B, Mount Holyoke Col, 30; M.A, Bryn Mawr Col, 31; Ed.D, Boston Univ, 55. Rural sch. teacher, Bennington, Vt, 31-32; high sch. teacher Eng. Bennington, 33-37; Malden, Mass, 37-43; asst. prof. Eng. & educ, Teacher Col, Conn, 43-48; dir. curriculum, Gloucester Pub. Schs, Mass, 48-49; asst. prof. educ, Boston Univ, 49-56; dir. reading, Springfield Pub Schs, 56-80; CONSULT. READING, CONN. STATE DEPT. EDUC, 70- Lectr, Am. Int. Col, 56-70. Mem; NCTE; Int. Reading Asn. (dir, 70); Phi Beta Kappa. Prof. Interest. Teaching of reading. Publ: Co-auth, Galaxy series, literature anthologies, 61-70, Tactics, I, II, III, A, B, 62-70 & Projection and counterpoint, 67, Scott; auth, Comprehension skills, Reading Teacher, 9/63; Organization perceived, In; Developing Study Skills in Secondary Schools, 65 & Reading skills common to the content areas, In: Fusing Reading Skills and Content, 69, Int. Reading Asn. Add: State Dept. of Education, P.O. Box 2219, Hartford, CT 06115.

Leaders in Education. New York: Bowker, 1974.

HARRY W. SARTAIN

Among the leaders in contemporary education is Dr. Harry W. Sartain. His fields of interest are English and reading in the elementary school. Of particular interest is his research on the reading vocabulary and methods of teaching reading.

Dr. Sartain has many books and articles to his credit. Among them are two textbooks, Language Arts for Beginners and English is Our Language. Other published works include "Modular Preparation for Teaching Reading", "Organizational Patterns of Schools and Classrooms for Reading Instruction", "Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction", "The Research Base for Individualized Reading", and many others.

Born in Becker County, Minnesota on April 7, 1920, Dr. Sartain is married and the father of two children.

Dr. Sartain entered the field of education as an elementary teacher in Becker County in 1938. After spending three years in the Army, he received his Bachelor of Science degree from Bemidji College, and his Master of Arts degree and Doctor of Education degree from the University of Minnesota. Since that time he has been an elementary supervisor in South Dakota, and instructor at the University of Minnesota, a director of elementary education in the Roseville District of Minnesota, and professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh.

Leaders in Education. New York: Bowker, 1974.

DR. NICHOLAS J. SILVAROLI

Nicholas J. Silvaroli was born December 4, 1930, in Buffalo, New York, He married Margaret M. Masterson (a teacher), August 22, 1952. They were divorced May 12, 1975. He received a B. A. from the University of New York at Fredonia in 1953. He received a M. A. at the University of New York in 1960. He received D. Ed. from Syracuse University in 1963. He is a member of the Independent party. His home is 999 East Baseline, Tempe, Arizona 85282. Some of his career accomplishments include such things as Director of the Reading Center in 1964. He is a Professor of Education at Arizona State University from 1970 to present. Professional associations include such impressive things as being a member of the Reading Association but chairman of the committee of automation in Reading. Some writings include the Classroom Reading Inventory by W. C. Brown in 1966, This Cool World by Allyn & Bacon Co., 1970, "Motivating Communication", an instructional film for Crowell Collier. Current work in progress includes a revision of an oral language text entitled Oral Language Evaluation. During his spare time he pursues such varied interests as flying and playing the piano.

Who's Who in the West
Contemporary Authors

Evelyn Nielsen Wood

Evelyn Nielsen Wood was born to Elias and Rose Nielsen on January 8, 1909, in Logan, Utah. She is a wife, mother, educator, and author.

In the area of reading, she has contributed her share to the field of education. She received the Bachelor of Arts Degree from the University of Utah in 1929, and the Master of Arts Degree in 1947. She is a former school teacher, girls counselor, and conductor of radio programs.

Mrs. Wood is founder and originator of Evelyn Wood Reading Dynamics. She taught rapid reading at the University of Delware in 1961 and also was guest lecturer at the National Education Association in that same year. In 1973-74, she served on the faculty at Brigham Young University as a research specialist in reading.

Reading is her speciality, she has written many books such as:

A Breakthrough in Reading - 1961
A New Approach to Speed Reading - 1962
Speed Reading for Comprehension - 1962

She co-authored a book in 1958 with Majory Barrows on Reading Skills.

Mrs. Wood is famous for her inventions of Speed Reading, a discovery that has helped so many and herself financially. She is married to Myron Douglas Wood and they reside at 1812 Harrison Avenue, Salt Lake City, Utah.

Who's Who in America - 38th ed. V. 2, 1974-1975.

THE TORCH LIGHTERS

In 1961, the first Harvard-Carnegie Reading Study was conducted. Its two major goals were to determine how U.S. colleges and universities were preparing future reading teachers and to make recommendations for improvement.

Questionnaire data was collected from 371 schools and visits made to 74 schools to gather information on the content and conduct of each preparatory reading program. The study resulted in 22 recommendations for improvement.

In the Spring of 1974, a follow-up was undertaken to determine to what extent the recommendations had been adopted or altered, to find out what changes had recently taken place in programs of teacher preparation, and to allow respondents a chance to make future recommendations. A three-part questionnaire was sent to 220 schools, including the 74 schools that had originally participated in the field study of 1961. A response was received from 73.2% of the population - 161 schools from 40 states.

The study revealed that little progress had been made in some areas, like student teaching programs but, that the majority of the recommendations made in 1961 were now in effect.

Austin, Mary C., Coleman Morrison, and others. The Torch Lighters; Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Graduate School of Education, 1961.

Morrison, Coleman and Mary C. Austin. "The Torch Lighters Revisited - A Preliminary Report," Reading Teacher. April, 1976.

Morrison, Coleman and Mary C. Austin. The Torch Lighters Revisited. Newark, Delaware: IRA, 1977.

THE UTILITY OF PHONIC GENERALIZATIONS

Theodore Clymer of the University of Minnesota and his associates conducted a study of the utility of phonic generalizations in the primary grades. Five general types of generalizations emerged from the study of the teachers' manuals - (1) vowels, (2) consonants, (3) endings, (4) syllabication, and (5) miscellaneous relationships. Eliminating miscellaneous relationships, one hundred twenty-one different separate generalizations were located. A large word list was prepared, and a group of forty-five of these generalizations were selected for study. A "per cent of utility" was computed for each generalization by dividing the number of words pronounced as the generalization claimed by the total number of words to which the generalization could be expected to apply. Clymer stated that each generalization should have at least a seventy-five per cent consistency. Most of the phonetic generalizations studied did not reach seventy-five per cent utility and possibly should not be presented.

In evaluating the initial testing of the utility of phonic generalizations, it seems that many generalizations which are commonly taught are of limited value, some generalizations are useful only after the student can pronounce the word, and careful attention should be given to point out that there are many exceptions to most of the generalizations taught.

Teaching Word Recognition Skills. Newark, DE IRA 1971.

RIGHT TO READ

In September, 1969, in a speech before the National Association of State Boards of Education, the United States Commissioner of Education challenged all of us when he announced "The Right to Read--Target for the Seventies." In that call Dr. James Allen proclaimed that "we should immediately set for ourselves the goal of assuring that by the end of the 1970's the right to read shall be a reality for all--that no one shall be leaving our schools without the skill and the desire necessary to read to the full limits of his capability."

This is education's "moon"--the target for the decade ahead. With the same zeal, dedication, preserverance, and concentration that made possible man's giant step of July 20, 1969, this moon too can be reached.

The National Right to Read Effort is a coordinated endeavor undertaken by all segments of society to insure that in the next decade Americans shall not be denied a full and productive life because of an inability to read effectively. Right to Read is a campaign to persuade the public that there is a national reading problem, to determine what cnanges are required to accomplish the goal, to persuade those who need to change to do so, to identify existing resources, and to make additional resources available.

Allen, James E. "The Right to Read--Target for the 70s," Reading Today and Tomorrow. ed. Amelia Melnik, Morristown: General Learning Press, 1972, 440-447.

THE NATIONAL ASSESSMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS

The National Assessment of Educational Progress is a project of the Education Commission of the States under the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

The purpose of the N. A. E. P. project is to gather and measure information to assess the quality of American education. The information can be used to assist the states and others in evaluating their educational programs to meet specific goals. The National Assessment is also used to provide guidelines for federal expenditures toward areas which show a need for special aid.

The assessment is designed to measure knowledge in ten content areas and samples approximately 100,000 students in four age groups - 9, 13, 17, and 26-35, nationwide. The exercises are composed of machine-scored multiple choice questions and personal interviews. Group results are reported by sex, race, geographic regions, parental education, community size and type, and age.

Reassessment of each area is performed every two-to six years intervals. Due to the design of the assessment it is possible to reevaluate a specific group in one specific area for national group comparisons. It is used by states or organizations desiring to evaluate current practices or stimulate new programs.

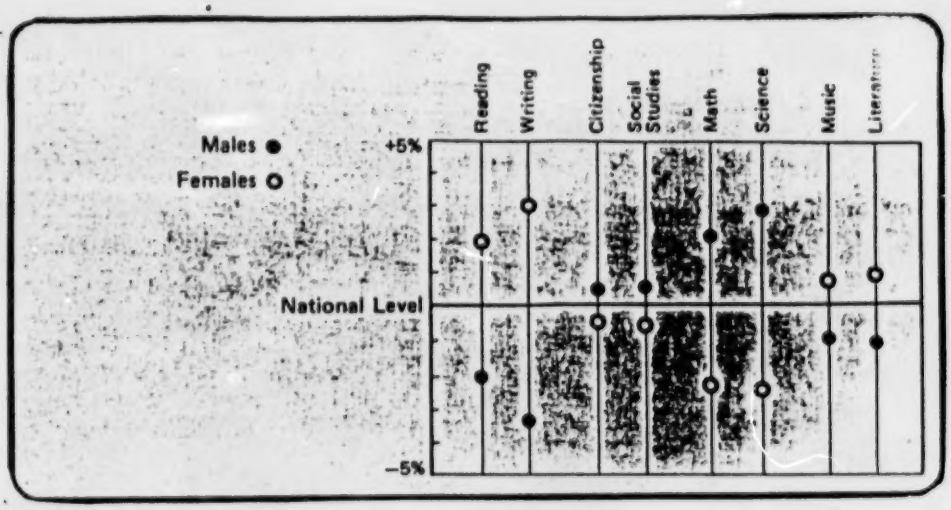
The National Assessment presents valid resources for determining whether the goals in education are being met in the classroom.

EXAMPLES OF GRAPHIC REPORTS

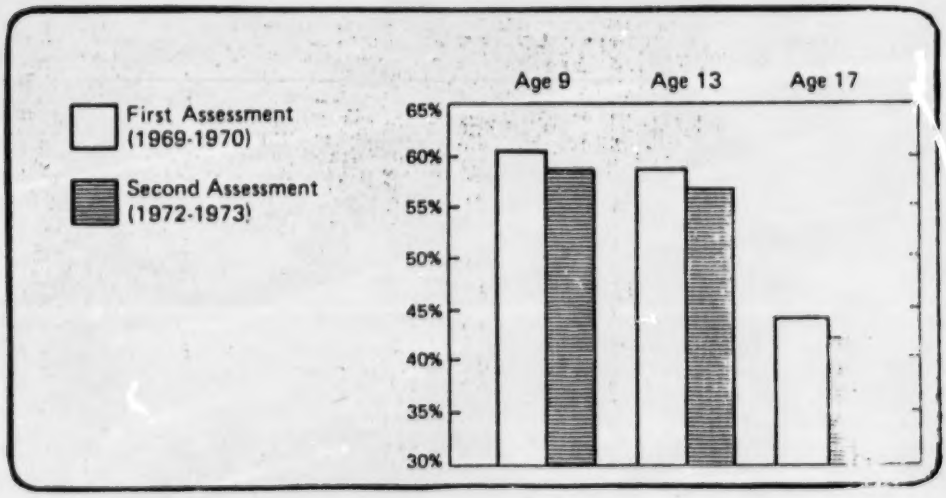
FROM

THE NATIONAL ASSESSMENT

Typical educational achievement of 17-year olds by sex



Summary of changes in performance on repeated science exercises between 1969 and 1973, showing mean correct percent for three age levels.



Teacher Evaluation Checklist

Name of School _____ Date _____

Name of Teacher _____ Area _____

	(Circle) High				Low
1. Classroom Organization	5	4	3	2	1
2. Daily Preparation	5	4	3	2	1
3. Communication	5	4	3	2	1
4. Knowledge of Subject Matter	5	4	3	2	1
5. Teacher-Pupil Rapport	5	4	3	2	1
6. Class Management/Discipline	5	4	3	2	1
7. Effective Use of Resource Materials	5	4	3	2	1
8. Personal Attributes	5	4	3	2	1

Signatures below indicate that a post-evaluation conference was held and the factors listed above were discussed.

_____ _____

Signature of Teacher

Signature of Evaluator

SUPERVISION: KEY TO A BETTER READING PROGRAM

A SELECTED LIST OF RESPONSIBILITIES

FOR READING SUPERVISORS

Read the following list of selected responsibilities for supervisors of the reading program and indicate your ranking of their importance.

_____ (1) Providing in-service for reading teachers

_____ (2) Maintaining effective supervision for teachers

_____ (3) Communicating with community about the reading program

_____ (4) Maintaining administration's interest in the reading program

_____ (5) Conducting research in reading

_____ (6) Acquainting teachers to use new teaching techniques

_____ (7) Coordinating classroom activities with remedial reading program

_____ (8) Selecting reading materials

_____ (9) Directing teachers to use new materials

_____ (10) Evaluating the reading program

_____ (11) Preparing bulletins for parents

_____ (12) Developing a professional library for your staff

_____ (13) Developing a cumulative reading record

_____ (14) Introducing new teachers to the reading program

_____ (15) Assisting teachers with grouping practices

_____ (16) Encouraging teacher interest in professional growth

_____ (17) Working with the school principal

_____ (18) Other - (Please state)

BOOKS

1. Auckermann, Robert, Wiley Publishing Co. Innovations in Reading.

2. Chall, Jeanne - Learning to Read: The Great Debate - New York, N. Y. McGraw Hill Inc. 1967.

3. Flesch, Rudolph - Why Johnny Can't Read and What you can do About it Harper - Row 1955 New York: N. Y.

4. Copperman, Paul - Literacy Hoax Morrow Publishing 1978.

5. Gilliland, Hap - A Practical Guide to Remedial Reading - Charles E. Merrill Publisher 1978

6. Robinson, H. Allan & Ellen Lamar Thomas, eds. Fusing Reading Skills and Content Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969.

7. Smith, Henry P. & Emerald V. Dechant. Psychology in Teaching Reading. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1961.

8. Greene, Elim & Madalynne Schoenfeld. A Multimedial Approach to Children's Literature. Chicago: American Library Association, 1972.

9. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Eliminating Ethnic Bias in Instructionsl Materials: Comment and Bibliography. Washington, D.C.. the Association, 1974.

10. Association for Childhood Education International. Some Approaches to Reading. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1969.

11. Bond, Guy L., & Eva Bond Wagner. Teaching the Child to Read. 4th ed. New York: Macmillan, 1966.

12. Cheyney, Arnold B. Teaching Reading Skills Through the Newspaper. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1971.

13. Durr, William K., ed. Reading Instruction: Dimensions and Issues. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1967.

14. Farr, Roger C., & James L. Laffey. Reading in the High School. Washington, D.C.: Association of Classroom Teachers, NEA, 1970.

15. Gilliand, John. Readability. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1972.

16. Hall, Nancy A. Rescue. Stevensville, Mich.: Educational Service, 1969.

17. Heilman, Arthur W. Principles and Practices of Teaching Reading. 3rd ed. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1972.

18. Smith, Nila Banton. Reading Instruction for Today's Children. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1963.

19. Strang, Ruth. Diagnostic Teaching of Reading. 9th ed. Chanpaign, Ill.: Garrand, 1972.

20. Veatch, Jeanette & Philip Acinapuro. Reading in the Elementary School. New York: Ronald Press, 1966.

PERIODICALS

1. Adolescence. Libra Publishers, Inc., P.O. Box 165, 391 Willets Rd., Roslyn Heights, N.Y. 11577.

2. American School Board Journal. National School Board Assoc., 800 State National Bank Plaza, Evanston, Ill. 60201.

3. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. National Assoceation of Secondary School Principals, 1904 Association Dr., Reston, Va. 22091.

4. Childhood Education. Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C., 20016.

5. Early Years. Circulation Service Center, P.O. Box 1069, Skokie, Ill. 60076.

6. Education. 1402 West Capitol Dr., Milwaukee, Wis. 53206.

7. Educational Leadership. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Suite 1100, 1701 D.St., N.W., Washington, D.C., 20006.

8. The Elementary School Journal. University of Chicago Press, 5801 Ellis Ave., Chicago, Ill. 60637.

9. Exceptional Children. Council for Exceptional Children, 1920 Association Dr., Reston, Va. 22091.

10. Film News. 250 West 57th St., New York, N.Y. 10019.

11. Gifted Child Quarterly. National Association for Gifted Children, 2;7 Gregory Dr., Hot Springs, Ark. 71901.

12. The High School Journal. University of Norht Carolina Press, P.O. Box 2288, Chapel Hill, N.C., 27514.

13. Instructor. P.O. Box 6099, Duluth, Minn. 55806.

14. Journal of American Indian Education. Center for Indian Education, Arizona State University, Tempe, Ariz. 85281.

15. Journal of Black Studies. Department of Balck Studies, State University of New York, Buffalo, N.Y. 14226.

16. Journal of Physical Education and Recreation. American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036.

17. Journal of Reading. International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Rd., Newark, Del. 19711.

18. The Journal of Teacher Education. American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1 Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036.

19. K-8 Bulletin of Teaching Ideas and Materials. Parker Publishing Co., Inc., Route 59A, Brookhill Dr., West Nyack, N.Y. 10994.

20. Learning. Education Today Company, Inc., 530 University Ave., Palo Alto, Calif. 94301.

21. Reading Research Quarterly. International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Rd., Newark, Del. 19711.

22. Resources in Education (ERIC). U.S. Deptment of Health, Education and Welfare. Available form the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

23. Teacher. Teacher Subscription Service, 262 Mason St., Greenwich, Conn. 06830.

24. Today's Education. 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

25. Urban Education. 275 South Beverly Dr., Beverly Hills, Calif. 90212.

16 mm Films

1. Diagnosis--Formal and Informal Allyn and Bacon, 1969.

2. Diagnosis of Speech and Reading Problems Cavalcade Production Systems for Education, 1966.

3. Developing Effective Reading Materials. Dave Bell Media Five Film Distributors.

4. Early Reading Parts I,II,and III. Basic Education, Inc., 1960.

5. First Grade Reading. INFORM, 1968.

6. First Reader, A Primer for Parents. University of Michigan Audio-Visual Education Center

7. Foundations of Reading and Writing. INFORM, 1975.

8. The Individualized Reading Approach. University of Iowa Audio-Visual Center.

9. Individualizing Reading Instruction in the Classroom. Columbia University, 1957.

10. Oral Language Breakthrough to Reading. INFORM, 1967.

11. Reading: An Introduction. INFORM, 1974.

12. Reading--Diagnosing Needs. McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1968.

13. Reading: Directed Lesson. McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1970.

14. Reading: Group Instruction. McGraw-HIll Book Co., 1969.

15. Reading in the Content Areas. . . Preparation. SUY, 1976.

16. The Reading Period, Part I & II. University of Iowa Audio-Visual Center 1960-61.

17. Reading Readiness. University of Northern Illinois, 1962.

18. Teaching Reading in the Secondary Schools: SyracuseUniversity Film Library, 1966.
    - Part I Organizing a Reading Program
    - Part II Analyzing Reading Achievement
    - Part III Handicapped Reader
    - Part IV Vocabulary Development
    - Part V Developing Comprehension Skills
    - Part VI Reading to Remember
    - Part VII The Library and the Reading Program
    - Part VIII Developing Skills for Reading Literature
    - Part IX Efficient Reading
    - Part X Report from the Reading Coordinator

Audio Tapes

1. An Analysis of Reading Achievement in the U.S.-- Roger Farr, 1976, Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.

2. New Views of the Learner--Implications and Consequences for Curriculum & Insturction--1978, Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development, Benjamin Bloom.

Video Tapes

Catalog of Video Tapesfor Teacher Educ.--Carlton College, 1971, Availavle in various formats. Carleton College Video Tape Projects, Northfield, Minn. 55057.

List of Publishers
and
Professional Associations

1. Addison Wesley Publishing Co., Inc.
   Reading, Mass. 01867

2. Allyn & Bacon, Inc.
   470 Atlantic Ave.
   Boston, Mass. 02210

3. American Book Co.
   450 W. 33rd St.
   New York, N.Y. 10001

4. Appleton-Century-Crofts
   292 Madison Ave.
   New York, N.Y. 10017

5. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
   1701 K Street, N.W.
   Washington, D.C. 20006

6. The Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc.
   4300 W. 62nd St.
   Indianapolis, Ind. 46206

7. William C. Broun Co., Publishers
   2460 Kerper Boulevard
   Dubuque, Iowa 52001

8. Thomas Y. Crowell Co., Inc.
   666 Fifth Ave.
   New York, N.Y. 10019

9. Doubleday & Co., Inc.
   245 Park Ave.
   New York, N.Y. 10017

10. E.P. Dutton & Co., Inc.
    201 Park Ave. S.
    New York, N.Y. 10003

11. ERIC Clearinghouse on Early Childhood Education
    University of Illinois
    Urbana, Ill. 61801

12. Fearon Publishers, Inc.
    6 Davis Drive
    Belmont, Calif. 94002

13. Field Educational Publications
    2400 Hanover St.
    Palo Alto, Calif. 94304

14. Garrard Publishing Co.
1607 N. Market St.
Champaign, Ill. 61820

15. Ginn and Co.
191 Spring St.
Lexington, Mass. 02173

16. Grosset & Dunlap, Inc.
51 Madison Ave.
New York, N.Y. 10010

17. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
757 Third Ave.
New York, N.Y. 10017

18. Harper & Row, Publishers
10E. 53rd St.
New York, N.Y. 10022

19. Harvard University Press
79 Garden St.
Cambridge, Mass. 02138

20. D.C. Heath & Co.
123 Spring St.
Lexington, MS 02175

21. Holt, Rhinehart & Winston
383 Madison Ave.
New York, N.Y. 10017

22. Horizon Press
156 Fifth Ave.
New York, N.Y. 10010

23. Houghton Mifflin Co.
1 Beacon St.
Boston, MS 02107

24. Indiana University Press
Tenth & Morton Sts.
Bloomington, IN 47401

25. Instructor Publications, Inc.
Instructor Park
Densville, N.Y. 14437

26. International Reading Association
800 Barksdale Rd.
Newark, Del. 19711

27. J. B. Lippincott Co.
E. Washington Square
Philladelphia, Pa. 19105

28. Little, Brown & Co.
34 Beacon St.
Boston, MS 02106

29. McGraw-Hill Book & Education Services Group
1221 Ave. of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

30. David McKay Co., Inc.
750 3rd Ave.
New York, NY 10017

31. Macmillan, Inc.
866 3rd Ave.
New York, NY 10022

32. Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.
1300 Alum Creek Dr.
Columbus, Ohio 43216

33. Modern Curriculum Press, Inc.
13900 Prospect Rd.
Cleveland, Ohio 44136

34. National Audio-Visual Association
3150 Spring St.
Fairfax, Va. 22030

35. W. W. Norton & Co. Inc.
500 5th St.
New York, NY 10036

36. Parker Publishing Co., Inc.
Rt. 59A, Brookhill Dr.
West Nyack, NY 10994

37. Prentice-Hall, Inc.
Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632

38. G. P. Putnam's Sons
200 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10016

39. Rand McNally
8255 Central Park Ave.
Skokie, Ill. 60076

40. Random House, Inc.
201 E. 50th St.
New York, NY 10022

41. Reading Is Fundamental
Rm. 2407, Arts & Industries Bldg.
Smithsonian Institution
Washington, D.C. 20560

42. Science Research Associates, Inc.
259 E. Eric St.
Chicago, Ill. 60611

43. Scholastic Book Services
50 W. 44th St.
New York, NY 10036

44. Scott, Foreman & Co.
1900 E. Lake Ave.
Glenview, Ill. 60025

45. Charles Scribner's Sons
597 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10017

46. Silver Burdett Co.
250 James St.
Morristown, NJ 07960

47. Simon & Schuster, Inc.
630 Fifth Ave.
New York, NY 10020

48. Charles C. Thomas, Publisher
301-27 E. Lawrence Ave.
Springfield, Ill. 62717

49. University of Chicago Press
5801 Ellis Ave.
Chicago, Ill. 60637

50. The Viking Press
625 Madison Ave.
New York, NY 10022

51. Xerox Education Group
1200 High Ridge Rd.
Stamford, Conn. 16905

Distributor of Media/Film

1. ABC Media Concept
1330 Ave of Americas
New York, NY 10019

2. EDC- Education Development Center
55 Chapel St.
Newton, MS 02160

3. Macmillian/Macmillan Audio Brandon Films
34 McQuester Parkway, S. Mount
Vernon, NY 10550

4. N. E. A.
   1201 16th St. N.W.
   Washington, D.C. 20036

5. N. B. C. Educational Enterprises
   30 Rockefeller Plaza
   New York, NY 10020

6. N. E. T. - National Educ. Tele. Film Service
   Indiana Univ. Audio - Vsiual Center
   Bloomington, Ind. 47401

7. Time - Life Films Inc.
   43 W. 16th St.
   New York, NY 10011